

Sociology and Social Research

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SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL RESEARCH

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RESEARCH ON THE RURAL-URBAN FRINGE: A CASE STUDY*

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Current problems in rural-urban fringe research have two principal foci: conceptualization and delineation. Studies of suburbanization and the movement of residents to the fringe have used a variety of approaches to the solution of these problems in research methodology.¹ It is the purpose of this paper to discuss the way in which these two problems were approached in a study of a small-city rural-urban fringe (Williamsport, Pennsylvania) and to summarize some demographic and socio-economic data as a descriptive case study of a small-city fringe population. In an effort to avoid some of the methodological problems in previous fringe research and in order to present the rural-urban fringe as a delineable entity, the following definition was used in the Williamsport study: the rural-urban fringe is that area of mixed urban and rural land uses between the point where full city services cease to be available and the point where agricultural land uses predominate (which includes waste land and wooded areas). It was assumed that such an area contains a population grouping and has evolved a social organization which are related to both rural and urban life but which have distinctive sociological features.

*Abstracted from a paper presented at the annual meeting of the Population Association of America, Cincinnati, Ohio, May 2, 1953. This paper is a partial report of Pennsylvania Agricultural Experiment Station, Project No. 1144, on the Social Organization in the Rural-Urban Fringe and is published as Journal Series, Paper No. 1802. The author is indebted to William F. Anderson II for assistance in the field delineating and in taking household records. He is also indebted to George V. Douglas for his assistance with the tabulations.

¹ For an analysis of the treatment of these problems in previous research, see Samuel W. Blizzard and William F. Anderson II, *Problems in Rural-Urban Fringe Research: Conceptualization and Delineation*, Pennsylvania Agricultural Experiment Station, Progress Report 89, November 1952.

In this project an attempt was made to delineate a complete fringe (as defined) surrounding a single small city. The purpose was to describe the social characteristics of fringe residents and to make no assumptions about the typicalness of specific areas within the fringe or of the Williamsport fringe in comparison with other small-city fringes.

In the delineation of the Williamsport rural-urban fringe attempts first were made to use all conceivable secondary data treatments in order to arrive at a boundable area. When this was not possible, a delineation method that was perhaps most like Throop's was used. It involved almost entirely reconnaissance and inspection. A general highway map of Lycoming County, containing the cultural features of 1939, was used in the process. With the aid of this map reconnaissance trips were made outward from the city of Williamsport on the principal highways into second and third tier townships. The large areas of farm and forest encountered led to the decision that the fringe did not extend beyond the second tier and that much of the second tier would be excluded. Intensive reconnaissance in the first two tiers was the next step. Systematic trips were made from the inner city on all roads leading from the city. The point at which agricultural land uses began to predominate was marked on a map, and the limits of axial growth were thus established. Interstitial territory was inspected from all roads crossing through it. The outer fringe boundary was placed at the approximate point where an urban pattern of settlement of some concentration yielded to a pattern of widely scattered acreage lots with non-farm-type housing among farms or pure farming and forest land use.

The inner boundary of the fringe was determined by the completeness or lack of completeness of city services available. The corporation boundary of the city was taken as the base line for determinations of the inner boundary. In some places where city services were unavailable, the fringe was extended into the city. Some of the characteristics considered in establishing the inner boundary were lack of city water and/or sewage service, lack of curbs and/or sidewalks, unpaved streets, and rural mail service. In addition, the availability of city bus service within three blocks was used as a criterion. On a map of the city the extent of these various services was noted. A series of lines were established around the city, the most expedient point being selected as the inner boundary.

The area thus delineated was continuous from its inner to its outer boundary. There were no islands of fringe beyond the outer limits. The policy was to make a continuous area with small tracts of agricultural land included rather than to have numerous islands beyond the main area of the fringe.

When the fringe had been delineated on a county highway map, an inspection was made of the entire area. Field enumerators carefully checked the completeness of the cultural features and particularly the presence of dwellings. Since the cultural features on the map were for 1939, changes were made to bring the map up to date for June 1950. When the map had been revised, each occupied dwelling unit within the delineated fringe was by systematic procedure assigned a number. When the dwelling units had been numbered, every seventh house beginning with a random number was selected for interviewing. No substitutions were made. Within the delineated fringe 3,225 dwelling units were identified. During the interviewing on the field 455 schedules were obtained. It is estimated that there were 12,600 residents in the delineated fringe.

What are the characteristics of a population living in a fringe as delineated for Williamsport? As a preliminary answer it is the purpose of this report (1) to describe some of the socioeconomic characteristics of the families living in the Williamsport rural-urban fringe, (2) to compare the social characteristics of those families who settled in the fringe as a result of out-migration from the city with those families who originated in the fringe or nearby rural areas and with those of families from outside the local area, (3) to compare the social characteristics of families in which the head is a commuter worker with those in which the head is a noncommuter worker, (4) to examine the characteristics for differences and/or similarities among the segments of the fringe population.

For purposes of this tabulation households were divided on the basis of origin in the following categories: local urban-origin families were those whose previous residence was located in Williamsport city or other urban incorporated areas contiguous to Williamsport city—South Williamsport, Duboistown, and Montoursville; local rural-origin families were those who originated in the fringe or elsewhere in Lycoming County exclusive of the urban incorporated area; non-local-origin families were those where previous place of residence was outside Lycoming County. By place of origin 60 per cent of the families were local urban, 22 per cent were local rural, and 18 per cent were nonlocal in origin. For purposes of analyzing commutation the following definitions were established: Commuter worker households were those in which the head used some kind of public or private vehicle to reach his place of occupation; noncommuter worker households were those in which the

head did not use a public or private vehicle to reach his place of employment. Commuter worker households included 78 per cent of the 455 dwelling units in the Williamsport fringe.

An over-all picture of the socioeconomic characteristics of the fringe population of Williamsport showed that the median-size family was 3.9 and that 61 per cent of the families consisted of husband, wife, and child or children. Two fifths of the families in the fringe were couples with children of school age. The median age of all individuals in the fringe was 28.8 years; the median age of all male heads was 40.8 years and for female heads, 37.0. The median number of years of school attended for male heads was 10.7 and that of the female heads was 11.0 years. Thirty-five per cent of the male household heads were white-collar workers and 55 per cent were blue-collar workers; 10 per cent were not remuneratively employed. About one fifth of the female heads of households were employed remuneratively. One in twenty of the male heads was employed in agriculture, while seven out of twenty were in the manufacturing industries. Another five out of twenty were employed in transportation, communications, and other public utilities and wholesale and retail trade. Of the male heads 42 per cent had a farm background; 37 per cent of the female heads had a farm background. Three quarters of the householders owned their own homes. The median value of these houses was \$7,000 in 1950. The median distance from fringe houses to downtown Williamsport was 3.9 miles. The median family income was \$3,047 in 1950. About 15 per cent of the families had incomes of \$5,000 or more; 75 per cent of the families reported that the primary source of their income was wages and salaries.

When the families were compared for socioeconomic characteristics by place of origin, local urban families were the smallest (3.8 persons per family) and nonlocal families were the largest (4.0). Local rural families consisted of husband, wife, and child or children most frequently (63.0 per cent), while the local urban families consisted of only husband and wife to a greater degree than other families (24.0 per cent). The median number of years of school for local urban and local rural household heads was 10.1 and 10.3 respectively. However, the nonlocal male heads had 12.6 years of schooling. A similar relationship is observed for the education of female household heads by place of origin. Little difference was observed in the median age of household heads. Non-local-origin male heads had four times more in the professional and semi-professional category than either of the other two classes. The largest occupational group among the local urban-origin male heads was in the

classification of craftsmen. The local rural-origin heads had a greater proportion in the proprietor, manager, and official classifications than other groups. However, about three quarters of these were farm owners or operators. The nonlocal male heads tended to be found in the supervisory occupations more frequently than other groups. The local rural-origin male heads were found proportionately more frequently in agriculture, construction, and the wholesale and retail trade industries than other groups. The local urban group had a greater proportion in the transportation and business and repair service industries than other groups, while the non-local-origin male heads were found disproportionately in the professional and related services when compared with other groups. Local urban and nonlocal heads tended to be from non-rural backgrounds. Nonlocal families were homeowners less frequently than local families, but they tended to live in homes of a considerably higher median value. Nonlocal families lived closer to downtown Williamsport (median 3.1 miles). Rural-origin families lived a median distance of 4.5 miles from downtown Williamsport. Non-local-origin household heads traveled the longest distance to their place of employment (3.9 miles median). The local rural-origin families had a decidedly lower income (\$2,652 median income) than either the local urban-origin (median income \$3,116) or non-local-origin families (median income \$3,361).

When the families were analyzed on the basis of commutation, it was found that commuter families were larger than noncommuter families (median, 4.0 persons and 3.5 persons respectively). The commuter family consisted of husband, wife, and child or children more frequently than the noncommuter (67 per cent as compared with 44 per cent). Commuter male heads of families had received more years of schooling than noncommuter male workers (11.0 years as compared with 8.9 years). The ages of heads of commuter worker households was considerably less than those of noncommuter households. The median for the former was 38.5 years and for the latter 50.8 years. Ages for the female heads were similar. The commuter family was most typically a couple with school-age children (46 per cent). Among the noncommuter families the modal types of occupation for male heads were proprietors, managers, and officials and not remuneratively employed. The commuter families had a greater proportion in the professional, clerical, craftsmen, operative, and laboring groups than the noncommuter households. More commuter family female heads were remuneratively employed than noncommuter female heads (23 per cent as compared with

15 per cent). By industrial classification, male heads of noncommuter households had a greater proportion occupied in agriculture, transportation, wholesale and retail trade, and business and repair services than commuter groups. The commuter group may be noted for the proportions that they have in construction, manufacturing, and professional industrial groups. Commuter worker families had a median income about 33 per cent higher than that of noncommuter families (\$3,226 as compared with \$2,416). Three quarters of the commuter worker households are homeowners, while 84 per cent of the noncommuter worker households were owner occupied. Commuter worker houses are generally in a better state of repair and have a higher median value than noncommuter households.

When the families in the fringe around Williamsport were compared with other population groupings, fringe families were larger than Pennsylvania urban or rural nonfarm families, but smaller than rural farm families. Fringe families also had a higher proportion of professionals than any other group in Lycoming County. The proportion of female heads with occupations outside the home was less in the fringe than for the state of Pennsylvania as a whole. The male and female heads of households in the Williamsport fringe had more formal schooling than did other residence groups (rural farm, rural nonfarm, and urban) in Pennsylvania. Williamsport fringe families had a higher median income than all families in Lycoming County and rural families, farm and nonfarm, in Pennsylvania.

In summary, when the families in the fringe are compared on the basis of place of origin, differences were observed. The nonlocal families were larger than those of other groups. They had a high social-status rating as indicated by their schooling, occupations, housing, and income. The local urban groups were smallest, had the least education, and tended to be craftsmen more often than other origin groups. The local rural-origin families consisted of husband, wife, and child or children most often. They were most typically farmers and had the lowest median income.

When the commuter worker households and the noncommuter worker households are compared, there are striking differences to be found. The commuter worker households had the largest families. The heads of these households were younger, received higher income, had the better status jobs, and enjoyed better housing than the noncommuter household. They were also the best educated.

These data seem to demonstrate that there are significant differences in the socioeconomic characteristics of the populations that migrate to the rural-urban fringe of a small city.

The delineating method used was practical for a small city problem, but it may be extremely cumbersome for a more metropolitan situation. The method of delineating the rural-urban fringe used in this study has produced population groupings that are highly heterogeneous. It demonstrates the variety of social backgrounds that may be found among residents in the fringe. The local rural-origin group is associated with low education, poor housing, low income, and less desirable jobs. Status-wise, it is apparent that the non-local-origin group has a higher position as evidenced by occupation, income, housing, and education. Male heads of households in the non-local-origin group tended to be professionals and managers connected with local branches of nation-wide corporations. Although they tended to have high status, there were some indications that they were a mobile group. One evidence of this was the lower proportion of home ownership among the non-local-origin group. It suggests the fact that these people may be in the early stages of their careers and anticipate being transferred as they climb the hierarchy of their organization.

ERLE FISKE YOUNG: A TRIBUTE*

MELVIN J. VINCENT
University of Southern California

In a very high sense, Erle Fiske Young needs no mere formulation of words or phrases to make us remember him. His living presence bore something so strongly eternal with all its show of vitality that those of us who knew him well can never forget him.

I do know that the sociological world has been left better for his having lived in it because: he knew but one race and creed—humanity; he knew naught but doing good for others; he knew what it meant to practice the principles of human welfare.

Erle could be at once a scientist, a philosopher, and an artist, for he possessed a profound gift for analyzing a situation, grasping its fullest and deepest inner meaning, and then communicating this to others.

Personally, I shall always feel a deep sense of gratitude to him, for his was a deep-seated loyalty that ever nurtured and kept alive the tender roots of friendship. For him to seek to undermine or work against anyone was akin to the basest infamy. Never in all the many years that I knew him did I hear him speak ill of anyone or do anyone a harm or an injustice. His sense of rightness and his sense of morality were of such quality that he was far above the pettiness of injuring others. He indeed possessed a mind so rare and so filled with the essence of righteousness that it knew only the luxury of cooperativeness.

As Plato was glad and grateful that he had lived in the time of Socrates, so also I am grateful that it was my great and good fortune to have had Erle as a colleague and real co-worker.

In concluding, I should like to quote two poems that he wrote, one poem revealing something of his philosophy about life and the leaving of it, the other showing his spirit of reverence to God, the real scientist. Both are illustrative of the soaring heights which the contemplative human mind can touch.

THANATOS A Prelude

Hear my call, O Euthanasia, darling of desire
Come sit with me, and newer ways plan out
For transit o'er that dreaded gulf 'twixt life and death
That living we do shrink to pass.

*Editor's note: Given at the November meeting of Alpha Kappa Delta, University of Southern California, in memory of Dr. Young, who was a member of SC chapter for more than twenty-eight years.

Let us elude departure's agony, the funeral pall,
Despair's shrill cry; omit the shroud, the gnawing worm,
The crowded sepulchre and death's indignities.

Let ritual touch the peaks of joy,
The full serenity of goals achieved;
A newer marriage; a cosmic transformation
To add to life and love
But deeper, truer meanings.¹

¹ The above was written as a reflection upon the suggestion made by George Bernard Shaw that Creation might well have improved upon the biological crudities and indecencies of human birth and death.

I SAW GOD WORKING

The learned scientist spoke in many-syllabled words
Of chemistry's compounding elements and physics' forces
Of atoms, electrons, beta, gamma, and alpha rays awhirl,
Statistics, formula and diagram, logic's sharp deductions
From the unseeably small to the unspeakably infinite
The range of life and not-life he spanned and tapped
Reviewing complexities too great to ravel, but there, within
Controlling every intricate part; guiding every on-going,
Each urge and ebb, each interlocked process
Pursuing, exemplifying, obeying the laws of being,
I saw God working.

THE PRIMARY GROUP IN MASS COMMUNICATION

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In all the immense literature on mass communication, public opinion, and propaganda, there is little coverage of communication in real, interacting groups, especially primary groups. The focus has been on masses, publics, and other large nominal plurals. Research on these is entirely legitimate when done in the proper framework. But in the exclusive concentration on these nominal categories, the basic realities of human communication have been slighted. A previous article by the writer has illustrated how this neglect hampers progress in the study of mass communication and the closely linked subject matter of public opinion and propaganda.¹

Fortunately, the neglect has not been universal. The pioneer researchers in communication, especially Charles H. Cooley, blazed a trail toward the twin understanding of communication and the primary groups where frames of reference and other basic aspects of communication are given their birth and their characteristic stamp. Following this lead, a number of current researchers have cast further light on communication in the primary groups of human society. Some of these have done so in the course of study of larger plurals, or in the study of propaganda, public opinion, or communication in general. All have illuminated the realities of communication in one way or another, and most have cast some direct or indirect light upon the tangled problems of so-called "mass communication."

Research on mass communication fills a genuine need, but most of it has been conducted in a theoretic vacuum. The meaningful conclusions have proved, like the masses and publics, somewhat phantom; and a number of the most competent communication specialists have expressed grave disappointment at the theoretical stagnation and empirical blind alleys that have characterized most current research in this area.

It has been suggested, in the previous article, that a return to the key insights of pioneer researchers like Cooley would go far in the direction of correcting this situation. Here we shall take note of some trends in

¹ "Is There Mass Communication?" *Sociology and Social Research*, 37:244-50, March-April 1953.

recent studies that appear to be following the trail blazed by those pioneers. Either explicitly or implicitly, work along these lines has contributed greatly to an integrated study of communication in *real* groups, both primary and secondary. But the greatest promise seems to be in those studies which have focused on the primary groups and have built up to the larger *plurels* from this base.

While this brief list does not aim to comprehend all the studies that have cast at least some glimmer of light on this subject, the following studies are worthy of special note in their coverage of real-group and especially primary-group communication in its relationship to mass communication.

1. *Small group studies.* Explicit treatment of small and primary groups, as such, appears to be increasing after a rather lengthy slack interval since the early work typified particularly by Cooley in the United States and Simmel in Europe. It is interesting that, though this revival of interest has been sporadic, the spores have been nonetheless fertile. A recent survey indicates that many sociologists consider that the greatest contribution to social theory in recent years has come from research on small groups.²

Most small-group studies have not centered on communication, but its ubiquity in human interaction has been duly chronicled in the course of the research. A few studies have dealt both directly and competently with the phenomena of communication, and the implications of these for communication in larger *plurels* should not escape the notice of communication specialists.

In particular, R. F. Bales' recent work in small-group interaction mirrors empirical data against relevant theory and presents categories that are highly suggestive for mass-communication researchers, even though not applicable without modification.³ Much of merit has also been accomplished by the work of psychologists, especially the so-called "field theorists," and by sociometricians despite some false leads in the direction of hyperquantification.

Whatever their shortcomings, special studies of small-group communication and interaction have focused on social realities and have, by and large, had a residue of value. The implications for all phases of communication research should not be lost. Without benefit of alchemy, clues to the nature of the macrocosm may still be found in the microcosm.

² Bruce Pringle, "Research and Social Theory," *Sociology and Social Research*, 36: 170-76, January-February 1952.

³ R. F. Bales, *Interaction Process Analysis* (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Press, 1950).

2. *Rumor studies.* In the study of rumors, social scientists have been forced by the data to highlight the real groups and interactive processes whereby rumors achieve their "prosperity." In recent wars rumors have achieved great prosperity despite official denials on all mass media in the various warring countries. This has added another negative indication in the testing of the hypothesis of virtual omnipotence of the mass media, as proposed by some specialists. Rumors have been almost rivaled in numbers by the pursuers of rumors, but among the best studies must be mentioned those of Ruch and Young, Allport and Postman, and Knapp.⁴

Rumors provide a key test of face-to-face communication as itself a mass medium, and further studies should aid immensely in the theoretical and empirical development of mass-communication research.

3. *General and lay writers.* Some of these, often with no scientific claims whatever, have given informed and insightful treatments of communication in real groups. Often, they have kept closer to the classical theoretic groundwork than their academic fellows. Names are legion, but among those who have contributed most to mass-communication research are Lippmann, Bernays, Rogerson, and (not too surprisingly, in view of his remarkable practical experience) George Creel. Lippmann, who coined the term *phantom public*, treated the larger plurels with an incisive awareness of their nominal character.⁵ Bernays' writings, likewise, steer clear of the phantoms and describe in a lively, informative way how public opinion actually "crystallizes."⁶ Rogerson and Creel, in their revelations of practical tricks of the trade, point continually to the vital role of existing organizations, associations, formal and informal groups of all sorts, in the realization of any effective and successful communication to the public.⁷ Rogerson, for example, stresses the importance of British "tea-time propaganda" in supplementing communication through mass media and indeed in leading to effective use of mass media.⁸

⁴ F. L. Ruch and Kimball Young, "Penetration of Axis Propaganda," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 26: 448-55; G. W. Allport and Leo Postman, *Psychology of Rumor* (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1947); R. H. Knapp, "A Psychology of Rumor," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 8: 22-37.

⁵ Walter Lippmann, *Public Opinion* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1922); *The Phantom Public* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1925).

⁶ Edward Bernays, *Crystallizing Public Opinion* (New York: Boni and Livewright, 1923); *Propaganda* (New York: Livewright Publishing Co., 1928).

⁷ Sidney Rogerson, *Propaganda in the Next War* (London: Bles, 1938); George Creel, *How We Advertised America* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1920).

⁸ *Op. cit.*, pp. 125-26.

4. *Studies of war propaganda.* Most studies of wartime propaganda have erred egregiously in focusing on nominal masses and publics. This is particularly true of narrative approaches where, as Doob notes, "either with gusto or with groans of despair most authors have deposited choice illustrations of propaganda between the covers of their books."⁹ Some studies, however, have used a more scientific and empirical approach, using narration only in presenting relevant case material. Among these, several have come to focus on the role of real, interacting groups. One study, particularly, comes to grips with the basic question of frames of reference as set by primary groups. This study, by Shils and Janowitz, highlights the role of such primary groups in determining which communications from larger groups are perceived and the degree of favor and belief with which they are regarded.

In summarizing their study of the German Wehrmacht, they present this conclusion with great clarity and cogency:

It must be recognized that on the moral plane most men are members of the larger society by virtue of identifications which are mediated through the human beings with whom they are in personal relationships. Many are bound into the larger society by primary group identifications. Only a small proportion possessing special training or rather particular kinds of personalities are capable of giving a preponderant share of their attention and concern to the symbols of the larger world. The conditions under which these different groups will respond to propaganda will differ, as will also the type of propaganda to which they will respond.¹⁰

5. *Texts.* For the neglect of real-group communication in specialized studies of mass media, there may be some excuse or at least rationalization. The excuse fails, of course, because of the skewing of results. However, in the case of general texts on communication, propaganda, or public opinion, there cannot even be a lame excuse for such neglect. For such general texts are put forth as comprehensive treatments. They cannot afford to slight important features, to say nothing of fundamentals. Yet most texts in this field do just that by treating masses and publics in an ethereal realm, apart from real human interaction on the primary level. Special treatments err when not done in the light of basic realities, and general treatments can afford to ignore such realities even less.

Among general texts, two notable exceptions to this well-nigh universal neglect are the recent works of F. C. Irion and Emory S. Bogar-

⁹ Leonard Doob, *Propaganda* (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1935), p. 6.

¹⁰ Edward Shils and Morris Janowitz, "Cohesion and Disintegration in the Wehrmacht," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 12: 315, 1948.

dus.¹¹ Irion, a political scientist, exemplifies excellent insight into basic sociology, though only a passing acquaintance with the literature. In his preface it is noted that he has had an extensive background in journalism and advertising. Perhaps, as with Bernays, it is this experience that has served to keep him keenly aware of the fulcras of opinion and communication in the primary group. His discussion of institutions and instruments forming public opinion must be tabbed as proficient sociology, certainly on the textbook level. There are some lax generalizations, but on the whole the text must be applauded as a signal exception to the wholesale slighting of real-group interaction in the shaping of opinion.

Happily, the other salient exception is a text by a sociologist, Emory S. Bogardus. In *The Making of Public Opinion* the keynote of primary-group communication is struck even more sharply and clearly than in Irion's book. Here the best in the classical insights of Cooley and other earlier sociologists is revived and integrated with current research.

One of the most striking points in this work is the extensive coverage both of formal and of informal groups, including even the "casual conversational group." Nowhere, in the considerable literature on communication, is the role of informal groups set forth so explicitly and so lucidly. A brief quote will illustrate this coverage.

Everyone takes part several times daily in small conversational groups of relatives, friends, or acquaintances. In this way a great deal of personal opinion originates and is passed around. When the millions of such conversations every day in a nation are considered, their role in forming bases of public opinion is evident. If 100 million persons participate in at least ten casual conversational groups every day, a billion of such conversations daily occur in the United States alone. Even if not more than one out of ten of these conversations bears a relation to community and public matters, the role of the casual conversational group cannot be ignored.¹²

Perhaps we had better say that the role of such primary groupings should not be ignored. For, as has been made clear here, it has been ignored by a host of writers on communication.

6. *Other studies.* Marxist propaganda writings comprise another signal exception to the general neglect of primary-group communication. The principal writers have devoted considerable attention to the primary group and its role in effective mass communication; and the practitioners under their guidance have had undeniable success.

¹¹ Frederick C. Irion, *Public Opinion and Propaganda* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1950); Emory S. Bogardus, *The Making of Public Opinion* (New York: Association Press, 1951).

¹² *Op. cit.*, p. 32.

Alex Inkeles' recent study of public opinion and "mass persuasion" in Soviet Russia presents an informed and exhaustive coverage of Bolshevik writings on mass communication, as well as the carrying out of the guiding principles of "personal oral agitation" among the masses.¹³ He holds that because of the development of mass media the study of direct personal communication has been neglected. However, "Bolshevik thought and practice continue to place the heaviest emphasis on daily face-to-face contact between the masses and representatives of the Party."¹⁴

Interestingly, the Great Retreat of Soviet Communism, as N. S. Timasheff neatly titled it, took place principally in those aspects of social life, such as the family, where communication through mass media came up against primary-group realities.

Other exceptions to the general slighting of primary and other real groups in the treatment of mass communication are the products of the research on "social communication" at the University of Michigan, the "mass persuasion" and "patterns of influence" research of R. K. Merton and his collaborators, the studies of face-to-face communication by Kurt Lewin and his followers, and even some of the so-called "experiments in mass communication" which have usually ended as observations of relatively small groups.

At the risk of repetition, let us restate in summary: The audiences of mass media and other communication respond in terms of frames of reference that are created, shaped, and stylized by real, interacting groups, especially those face-to-face, intimate groups labeled by sociologists "primary." Even the fractional portion of waking time, claimed by Schramm for the mass media, is ordinarily spent in company with various formal and informal primary groups, which tend to determine the selective perception of mass communication and the momentary and lasting reactions to it far more than the mass communicators do. Thus, the real group, usually primary, is the true nucleus of communication phenomena. Its importance is so central that it would not be too far amiss to restyle it, as suggested by G. C. Homans, the "human group."¹⁵ In any event, research in mass communication which has slighted such groups has been handicapped severely and produced few significant results. Research that has taken account of the primary realities in human communication has, on the other hand, shown that the twin emphasis of Cooley and other

¹³ Alex Inkeles, *Public Opinion in Soviet Russia: A Study in Mass Persuasion* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950), especially chapters 3-8.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 67.

¹⁵ G. C. Homans, *The Human Group* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., Inc., 1950), p. 1.

pioneer specialists on communication and primary groups offers a most hopeful line of development for the study of mass communication, as well as communication in general. Future research in mass communication should prove far more fruitful if this primary (or human) group is kept clearly in focus, and if hypotheses are developed and observations made in the light of it.

So long as masses, publics, and other "phantoms" occupy the whole stage, there can be only "sound and fury, signifying absolutely nothing." When they are brought into proper focus in their respective secondary roles, we shall be moving toward what Bruce Smith has perhaps prematurely entitled the "science of mass communication."

CORRELATION OF TIME SERIES IN POPULATION FORECASTING

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The correlation of time series is a promising but seldom-used method of forecasting the population of cities and metropolitan areas. A careful review of the literature reveals only a few instances of its use or description.

Pearl and Reed suggested the use of correlation as early as 1923:

Another method is to correlate the growth of the population with the growth of some other variable (usually an economic variable), and then from predictions for this other variable to obtain estimates of the future population. This procedure is applied when most of the population of a community is associated with some particular industry which is known to be rapidly expanding.¹

Kidner and Neff used this technique in a 1945 study of Los Angeles County.² They correlated annual estimates of the population of Los Angeles County with annual population totals for California for the sixteen years preceding 1944. The regression equation for the two variables was $Y = -.023 + 1.008X$, with a coefficient of correlation of $+.989$. Kidner and Neff then substituted annual forecasts of California's population, 1945-50, published earlier by the State Reconstruction and Re-employment Commission, in the regression equation, to obtain estimates for Los Angeles County. Both "high" and "low" state forecasts were far too conservative, however, and consequently the corresponding 1950 county estimates were 7.8 and 18.4 per cent under the 1950 census figure.

The present author employed this method in forecasts for the Flint Standard Metropolitan Area in 1947.³ Experimentation indicated that the highest correlation coefficient obtainable using available prewar

¹ Raymond Pearl and Lowell J. Reed, *Predicted Growth of Population of New York and Its Environs* (New York: Plan of New York and Its Environs, 1923), p. 9.

² Frank L. Kidner and Philip Neff, *An Economic Survey of the Los Angeles Area* (Los Angeles: The Haynes Foundation, 1945), pp. 117-18.

³ Robert C. Schmitt, *The Future Population of Metropolitan Flint* (Ann Arbor: Institute for Human Adjustment, Horace H. Rackham School of Graduate Studies, University of Michigan, July 1947). Summarized in Victor Roterus and Robert C. Schmitt, "Short-Range Forecasting for Municipal Purposes," *Business Information Service* (U.S. Department of Commerce, Area Development Division), April 1951, pp. 4-5.

(1928-40) data was that between employment in Flint manufacturing establishments and wage earners in United States durable goods manufacturing, with a coefficient of correlation of $+0.95$ for the thirteen years. A forecast of nation-wide employment in durable goods manufacturing in 1950, published earlier by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, was inserted into the regression equation, which, upon solving, provided an estimate of 1950 Flint manufacturing employment. This projection was then expanded to an estimate of total population on the basis of past relationships. The resulting forecast of population, compared with 1950 U.S. Census data recently made available, shows the following degree of error:

	<u>Forecast</u>	<u>Census</u>	<u>% Error</u>
Population, 1950	275,000	270,963	1.5
Increase, 1940-50	47,056	43,019	9.4
Increase, 1947-50	27,000	22,963	17.6

The present author, after noting the accuracy of the Flint projections, applied the correlation method to Seattle, a city which, unlike Flint, has both a diversified and a rapidly changing economic base. Annual metropolitan population estimates for 1926 through 1950 were correlated with United States aircraft production, lumber production, Asiatic trade, Alaskan trade, and various other national economic series presumably related to Seattle's population growth.⁴ The highest coefficient of correlation was only $+0.81$, quite inadequate for forecasting.

Some improvement resulted from applying multiple correlation to the Seattle data. Metropolitan population, lagging one year, was correlated for the 1926-50 period with the three most promising variables: United States-Alaskan trade, United States aircraft production, and United States-Asiatic trade. The measure of multiple correlation (R) was .905, still rather low for practical use. As a test, these same variables were then correlated for the 1909-29 period, resulting in a coefficient of .941. Actual trade and production data for later years, inserted in the 1909-29 regression equation, produced population "forecasts" ranging from 22

⁴ Yearly population estimates were taken from the Seattle City Planning Commission, "Estimates of Intercensal Population for the Seattle Standard Metropolitan Area: 1860 to 1950," *Current Planning Research*, No. 4, August 15, 1951, p. 4. Economic data were compiled from *Historical Statistics of the United States, 1789-1945* and the 1917, 1933, 1948, 1949, and 1950 volumes of the *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, all issued by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Trade data were adjusted to 1935-39 dollars.

per cent too high (for 1945) to more than a third too low (1948). The vast economic changes occurring during the 1930's and 1940's had almost completely invalidated the equation based on predepression relationships.

This failure illustrates some of the major limitations of the method. According to Pearl and Reed,

While the results obtained by this method are often accurate over short intervals of time, when applied to longer intervals they are usually inaccurate, for two reasons: first, the long-time prediction of the condition of any industry or group of industries is itself subject to error; and second, no recognition is made of the other forces acting to increase and retard population growth.⁵

A third limitation is the implicit (and often unrealistic) assumption that the past relationship between population and economic variables will continue without appreciable change into the future.⁶ Fourth, the method is feasible only where reliable yearly population data are available. Finally, mention should be made of the large sampling error characteristic of correlation coefficients based on relatively few observations.

It thus appears that the correlation of historical series to forecast population is a promising but limited method, to be used only with considerable caution. It is probably most accurate for cities like Flint, Miami, Washington, or Oak Ridge, where short-term forecasts can be related with confidence to anticipated trends in a few highly important basic industries. Long-range projections and diversified economies are in all likelihood more effectively approached with other techniques. These possibilities call for continued research. Even so, this method, used with discrimination, might well prove a useful addition to the array of forecasting techniques gradually being developed for demographic analysis.

⁵ *Loc. cit.*

⁶ See the American Society of Planning Officials, *Population Forecasting* ("Planning Advisory Service, Information Report No. 17ⁿ"), Chicago, August 1950, p. 22.

THE RACE PROBLEM IN CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN NEGRO POETRY

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Since Colonial days poetry has been a favorite literary medium of the American Negro writer. Closely related to music, in which the Negro has particular aptitude, poetry gives him a means of expressing his thoughts in rhythmic form. Jupiter Hammon, Phyllis Wheatley, George Moses Horton, and an unknown number of folk poets are among the early Negro writers who gave their readers a glimpse of the rich heritage in store for the reading public of the future.¹

Like other writers, Negroes have been influenced by the literary fashions and social conditions of their particular eras. In the sorrow and work songs, the folk poets found a way to reveal attitudes toward menial tasks and social injustice. Literary poets, writing in the romantic pattern generally in vogue during the nineteenth century and largely for a white reading public, described the black man's gratitude for being rescued from eternal damnation by his Christian master; or they drew idyllic pictures of the cheerful and contented Negro peasant in his humble home.²

'Twas not long since I left my native shore,
The land of errors and Egyptian gloom;
Father of mercy! 'twas thy gracious hand
Brought me in safety from those dark abodes.³

— — —
So, I'll jes' stay by dis fire
Out o' col' en snow en win's
Smokin' mah rich long-green 'backer
Toastin' mah rheumatic shins.⁴

¹ Sterling Brown, *Negro Poetry and Drama* (Washington, D.C.: The Associates in Negro Folk Education, 1937), pp. 4-13; Herman Dreer, *American Literature by Negro Authors* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950), pp. vii-viii, 1-26; Sylvestre C. Watkins and John T. Frederick, editors, *An Anthology of American Negro Literature* (New York: Random House, 1944), p. xi; Langston Hughes and Arna Bontemps, editors, *The Poetry of the Negro* (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1951), pp. vii-ix.

² Brown, *op. cit.*, pp. 41-43; Alain Locke, "The Negro in American Culture," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, pp. 155-60.

³ Brown, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

⁴ J. Mord Allen, *ibid.*, p. 37.

But the poetic trend of the twentieth century in general is down-to-earth realism, and the literary artist pictures life as he sees it, no matter how sordid and warped it may be. Following this trend and displaying the courage of their convictions, many Negro poets add their voices to those protesting the causes of social injustice in modern society. In their works there are frequent references to a wide variety of social problems, including those that stem from prejudice and misunderstanding. In four hundred and seventy-one poems written by fifty-two poets, ninety-five of them by thirty-one authors mention some phase of the race problem in the United States.⁵

Because my mouth
Is wide with laughter
And my throat
Is deep with song,
You do not think
I suffer after
I have held my pain
So long?⁶

Some of the poets indict society for its abuses and social discrimination. They hate exploitation and condemn those who deny freedom to a people whose men have fought and died to protect it.

Oh, how can we forget
Our human rights denied?⁷

— — —
These truly are the Brave,
These men who cast aside
Old memories, to walk the blood-stained pave
Of Sacrifice, joining the solemn tide
That moves away, to suffer and to die
For Freedom when their own is denied.⁸

In tragic irony, one of the poets points to the lack of recognition given the Negro for his part in developing the American way of life: "I am

⁵ Brown, *op. cit.*, pp. 60-61, 79-81; Dreer, *op. cit.*, p. 21; Brown, "Contemporary Negro Poetry," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, pp. 243-61; Locke, "The New Negro," in Dreer, *op. cit.*, pp. 168-73.

⁶ Hughes, "Minstrel Man," *The Dream Keeper* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1949), p. 38. Cf. Bontemps, "Nocturne at Bethesda," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, p. 257.

⁷ Melvin B. Tolson, "Dark Symphony," in Hughes and Bontemps, *op. cit.*, pp. 73-74.

⁸ Roscoe Jamison, "Negro Soldiers," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, p. 246.

tired of building up somebody else's civilization."⁹ Another speaks of old wounds reopened by new injuries: "Think not my wounds are healed. . . I keep the roots concealed."¹⁰ Others describe the adjustment to feelings of frustration and defeat caused by unfulfilled dreams: "And they learned to live it down. . . As though they did not care."¹¹ One poet reveals the shock of a child's first contact with race prejudice.

Now I was eight and very small,
And he was no whit bigger,
And so I smiled, but he poked out
His tongue, and called me, "Nigger."
I saw the whole of Baltimore
From May until December;
Of all the things that happened there
That's all that I remember.¹²

In poetry there is much criticism of the discrimination Negroes encounter in the occupational field. White employers assign them menial tasks and pay them inadequate wages:

The steam in hotel kitchens
And the smoke in hotel lobbies,
And the slime in hotel spittoons:
Part of my life.
Hey, boy!
A nickel,
A dime,
A dollar,
Two dollars a day.¹³

An author blames the lack of occupational opportunity for one educated and refined Negro girl's decision to turn to prostitution as a way out of the dilemma.

Once I was good like the Virgin Mary and the Minister's wife. . .
Now I can drink more gin than any man for miles around.
Gin is better than all the water in Lethe.¹⁴

⁹ Fenton Johnson, "Tired," *ibid.*, p. 244.

¹⁰ Countee Cullen, "Confession," *Copper Sun* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1927), p. 8.

¹¹ Georgia Douglas Johnson, "Old Black Men," in Hughes and Bontemps, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

¹² Cullen, "Incident," *Color* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1925), p. 15. Cf. Tolson, "Rendezvous with America," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, p. 171; "Confession," *op. cit.*, p. 8; "Tableau," *op. cit.*, p. 12.

¹³ Hughes, "Brass Spittoons," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, pp. 226-27.

¹⁴ Johnson, "The Scarlet Woman," in Hughes and Frederick, *op. cit.*, pp. 61-62.

Others point bitterly to the Negro's inability to secure employment because of his race.

We remember the job we never had,
Never could get,
And can't get now
Because we're colored.¹⁵

There are several references to Jim Crowism and the incongruous factors involved in it.

On the bus we're put in the back—
But there ain't no back
To a merry-go-round!
Where's the horse
For a kid that's black?¹⁶

When a Southern hospital refuses admittance to a Negro Blues singer, she dies from injuries received in an automobile accident.

Well, dey give po' Bessie
to de undertaker man;
ol' Death an' Jim Crow (Lawd)
done de job, hand in han'.¹⁷

Anger and resentment are reflected in the poetry which condemns those who oppress the helpless by legal or illegal misuse of power. The authors defend the victims of mob violence and caustically reproach the group responsible for their death.

They got the judges
They got the lawyers
They got the jury rolls
They got the law.
They don't come by ones
They got the sheriffs
They got the deputies
They don't come by twos
They got the shotguns
They got the rope

¹⁵ Hughes, "Puzzled," from *One Way Ticket*, David E. Scherman and Rosemarie Reddick, editors, *Literary America* (New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1952), p. 156. Cf. Welborn Victor Jenkins, "Trumpet in the New Moon," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, p. 259; Hughes, "The Negro," and "I, Too, Sing America," *op. cit.*, pp. 72, 76.

¹⁶ Hughes, "Merry-Go-Round," in Hughes and Bontemps, *op. cit.*, p. 104.

¹⁷ Myron Higgins, "Blues for Bessie," *ibid.*, pp. 194-95; Melvin B. Tolson, "Dark Symphony," *ibid.*, p. 76.

We git the justice
In the end.
And they come by tens.¹⁸

— — —
I had a home, a wife and kid,
And I was ridin' high.
Along came white Jim from the hill
And said I had to die.¹⁹

But those who die are not the only victims of mob "justice"; their families and friends suffer disillusionment and grief.

Way down south in Dixie
(Break the heart of me)
They hung my black young lover
To a cross-roads tree.
Way down south in Dixie
(Bruised body high in air)
I asked the white Lord Jesus
What was the use of prayer.²⁰

Even though the white woman is a willing partner in the sexual act, it is often the black man who pays the price for "raping" her.

In the back of her Buick you drank your fill.
Then she raised you out of your dream. . . .
"I'll tell every white man in this town.
I'll tell them all of my sorrow.
You got my body tonight, nigger boy.
I'll get your body tomorrow."²¹

Because it forces an unfortunate role upon children of mixed racial parentage, miscegenation accentuates differences between races.

Ambiguous of race they stand,
By one disowned, scorned of another.²²

With the arrival of the new Negro, insisting that his people receive freedom and justice and social equality, comes a wide variety of poetry demanding social reform.

There's never been equality for me,
Nor freedom in this "homeland of the free."²³

¹⁸ Brown, "Old Lem," in Hughes and Bontemps, *op. cit.*, p. 88.

¹⁹ Naomi Long Witherspoon, "Refugee," *ibid.*, p. 207.

²⁰ Hughes, "Song for a Dark Girl," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, p. 169.

²¹ Gwendolyn Brooks, "Ballad of Pearl May Lee," *A Street in Bronzeville* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1945), p. 44. Cf. Walter Everette Hawkins, "Thus Speaks Africa," and Margaret Walker, "Southern Song," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, pp. 246, 172; Hughes, "The Negro," *op. cit.*, p. 72.

²² Cullen, "Near White," *Color*, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

²³ Hughes, "Let America Be America Again," in Hughes and Bontemps, *op. cit.*, pp. 106-08.

The authors seek an answer to the race dilemma in a number of ways. Some suggest open revolt: "Let the martial songs be written. . . Let a race of men now rise and take control."²⁴ Some advise communism: "On some red day in a burst of fists on a new horizon."²⁵ Some recommend patience: "Beat with bare brown fists—And wait."²⁶ Others find promise and hope in religion: "Our Father God: our Brother Christ, retrieve my race again."²⁷ Occasionally, there is a plea for "bridges here and there"²⁸ to span the chasms of social distance separating the Negro from his white countryman: "Let us forget the past unrest. We ask for peace."²⁹ Although the poets differ in the social techniques they suggest, they agree on one point: "We march."³⁰

The New Negro,
Hard-muscled, Fascist-hating, Democracy-ensouled,
Strides in seven-league boots
Along the Highway of Today
Toward the Promised Land of Tomorrow.³¹

A summary of these data reveals information significant not only to the sociologist but also to everyone in the United States. It indicates attitudes of these Negro authors that may be like those of other American Negroes or, for that matter, like those of any minority group in America today.

Because the Negro is denied the political freedom and social equality he desires, he suffers from feelings of frustration and defeat. When his people are exploited or oppressed or forced to assume degrading social roles, he becomes angry and resentful and rebellious. He may close his ears to those who plead for patience and faith in divine help and demand instead a militant uprising and a radical change in form of government. These are factors which merit the thoughtful consideration of the American people.

²⁴ Walker, "For My People," *ibid.*, p. 187.

²⁵ Richard Wright, quoted in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, p. 260.

²⁶ Hughes, "Song," *op. cit.*, p. 41.

²⁷ Cullen, "Pagan Prayer," *On These I Stand* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947), pp. 11-12.

²⁸ Georgia Douglas Johnson, "Interracial," in Hughes and Bontemps, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

²⁹ Angelina Weld Grimke, quoted in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, p. 245.

³⁰ Hughes, "Youth," *op. cit.*, p. 77.

³¹ Tolson, "Dark Symphony," in Hughes and Bontemps, *op. cit.*, p. 75. Cf. Hughes, "Prayer Meeting," "Sun Song," "I, Too, America," *op. cit.*, pp. 59, 70, 76; Lewis Alexander, "Transformation," in Watkins and Frederick, *op. cit.*, p. 167; Cullen, "From the Dark Tower," Louis Untermeyer, editor, *The New Modern American and British Poetry* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., Inc., 1950), p. 251.

FIELD USE OF PROJECTIVE METHODS: A CASE EXAMPLE

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One of the newer areas of industrial relations research, and most challenging from the point of view of attitude studies, is the relationship of union members to their leaders. The author was recently engaged in a field research project focused on member attitudes toward the grievance procedure in several manufacturing plants. It was felt that this approach would permit an evaluation of the member-leader relationship without directly probing this sensitive area. To the vast majority of members the importance of the local union is directly related to its ability to handle day-to-day shop problems.

As the study progressed, however, it became more evident that many of the questions that needed answering were considered as either too "threatening" or "personal" to the informants. In many instances ambivalence was a predominant characteristic. Only in the case of a small number of articulate, secure interviewees could one obtain satisfactory results from questions designed to obtain information on their feelings toward the union and its officers.

In such a situation, given the objective of gaining the confidence of a group large enough to represent the parts of the social system he seeks to understand, the researcher is faced with a task of staggering proportions in time and personal energy. Even if adequate rapport is established over time, there still may be doubts as to whether the questions adequately represent the problems needing solution or whether the potential answers are sufficiently objective to be expressed in the language available to the interviewee.¹

Under these circumstances, it seemed appropriate to experiment with projective methods of interviewing. If we neglect, for the moment, the administrative skills required for the adaptation of projective techniques to industrial field research, there remain at least two additional problems. In such studies we are usually not interested in using ambiguous stimuli as a means of studying individual personality structure. Indeed, we are

*The author is indebted to the Grant Foundation for the financial assistance which enabled this study to be completed. It was begun in the Industrial Relations Section, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

¹ Cf. W. Godfrey Cobliner, "On the Place of Projective Tests in Opinion and Attitude Surveys," *International Journal of Opinion and Attitude Research*, 5: 480-90, 1951-52.

more interested in identifying attitudes and behavior patterns that are common to groups or subgroups within the environment to be studied. It is true that we want to know how the individual perceives and interprets certain social situations, but not at the level probed by the conventional Rorschach Ink Blot Test or a Thematic Apperception Test. Second, most informants that one approaches for assistance in such a study are reluctant to submit to what is obviously a "psychological investigation." Their acceptance of the desirability of helping a struggling researcher does not include undergoing an intensive psychiatric testing program. The presentation of such materials or comparable projective devices, without extensive introduction, would meet serious resistance.

The use of photographs of real life situations approximating those with which the interviewee was familiar seemed to overcome both of these objections. Whereas a sketch of a boy apparently pleading with an older woman might elicit nothing more than a suspicious perusal, a photograph of a union-management meeting attracts considerable interest and involvement. Similarly, even were our informant to express himself on the above-mentioned sketch, we might accumulate some interesting information concerning parental fixations but would still be totally ignorant of relevant attitudes in the current situation. (Obviously, for some studies such examples of "deeper" knowledge may illuminate significant areas.)

In this case the specific pictures to be used were determined by the existing formal and informal structure of the grievance procedure in the plant to be studied. Depth interviewing of a small sample was able to provide a fairly consistent pattern of the important interpersonal situations perceived by an individual member having a grievance. In general, people in the plant who thought about using the grievance procedure, envisioned themselves as participating in these group interactions or successive steps of the settlement process: (1) informal discussion with one's fellow workers on what to do about a complaint, (2) informal discussion with a union official, (3) informal meeting with the foreman and union official and worker involved, (4) formal meeting in personnel director's office with the union official and worker present, (5) a formal hearing for the union member before the union executive board, (6) formal discussion of the grievance with the union member present at the plant labor-management committee meeting, (7) an informal discussion in the work group concerning the outcome of the case.

While only a small percentage of the work force (less than 5 per cent) had actually experienced all of these situations, each member interviewed said he knew people who had participated in one or more of these steps.

Thus, it was not difficult to obtain seven photographs that depicted scenes similar to the ones described by the workers. The pictures utilized, however, did not show any present or former member of management or the union. They were all taken in other plant settings.

Methods of administration. We have passed over the administrative skills involved in the use of most projective techniques. It should be evident that the use of familiar "photographs," although sacrificing the more profound personality revelations, simplifies the application immensely. After the individual's cooperation was obtained in "giving his ideas about a few plant photographs," the pictures were presented individually with a brief description of the situation illustrated. This was done during rest periods in the plant.

Some experimentation convinced the author that the informant was more at ease if the depicted scene was rather well structured. Thus, in the case of the executive board setting the informant seemed more at ease when he knew which one of the dozen or so men depicted in the photograph had a grievance. In some of the other pictures, however, fruitful results were obtained by permitting the informant to assign roles to the people shown. In the smaller groupings, for example, the photographs containing one management representative and several workers, it was interesting to see whether the active roles were assigned to the union representative or to the worker in presenting his case or defending a particular position.

Some additional background material, or "the setting," was also provided. For example, the informant was told that a particular person in one of the pictures had a grievance, something that was bothering him, but before taking it to the union he was discussing it with his fellow workers. Or the situation was one in which the member had already taken his grievance through the various steps in the procedure and was now listening to a discussion of his results by the men he worked with.

The informant then was asked for his opinion as to *what* was being said, how the various parties *felt* about what was happening, or what "was going on in their minds at the time." "How do you think this guy is feeling right now?" was always a fruitful question. He was also asked to fill in some of the background by guessing "What has happened just before this picture was taken?" and "What do you think is going to happen next?" Of course, most of the material supplied by the interviewee concerned the emotional and descriptive content at the moment the photograph was presumably snapped.

It should be observed that a great deal of the ready participation that this type of question provides can be attributed to a preoccupation with facial expression. Seemingly, large numbers of people pride themselves on their ability to interpret character, emotion, and probably modes of expression on the basis of facial characteristics as shown in a photograph. Filling in dialogue and "the plot" provided an active challenge that most people willingly accepted and apparently enjoyed. In many instances, when the photographs were presented in a group situation, there was a good deal of competition for the opportunity to participate. Such interest often warranted a "group interpretation." Each photograph was presented to several potential informants, and the group would proceed to work out a common interpretation. In the process, a good many suggestions would be rejected, and the reasons for so doing would be explicitly stated by other members of the group, often with actual examples used as a substantiating evidence for rejection of a particular interpretation. This type of interplay was exceedingly valuable.

Validity. The results obtained by this projective method were checked against attitude expressions contained in the intensive interviews that provided the framework for the test. These two-hour interviews contained comparable material and data relating to each of the seven "steps" selected for projective depiction. These were segregated and compared with the material supplied by the photograph commentators. In many cases not only the sentiments but also the examples used to bolster the interpretations were identical. In many cases these were obviously taken from past incidents with which the entire group was familiar.

Below are two typical examples of responses obtained from the two types of interviews. The first is a response to a photograph, and the second a quotation from a two-hour interview.

I. Informal discussion with one's fellow workers on what to do about a complaint.

A. Response to the photograph:

You can tell by their faces just what they're saying. They're telling them, "You can go ahead if you want to—but," and you can be sure it's a big *but* they're adding. The question is whether or not he has a legitimate grievance. You can see by how he looks that he's sure that he has a legitimate grievance, of course; that's always the way. He's probably still going through with it, in fact. But by the looks of them, it seems like he is making trouble for the group all the time. If those other fellows are a cross section of the plant, they'll probably be thinking the same as the grievance committee though, and he is going to lose his case. In fact, I'm sure he'll lose it. But at the end he will have made some trouble for them.

B. Interview response:

Very few fellows in a department like to be in a position of having a grievance—it usually stops a lot of other people from getting something. Most of the grievances fellows have are against each other. You can tell though who it is who's going to have the grievances. It's just like in the Army—you know who's going to squawk.

II. Informal discussion with a union official.

A. Response to the photograph:

The fellow that is standing over there (pointing) is a member with some kind of grievance. He is saying to the steward, "I'm paying you to handle this for me." The steward is nodding his head but he's thinking that he'll work it out when he gets around to it. It seems like this guy has a lot of grievances. You can tell by looking at them that the steward is the calm one and feels that there is no use getting excited about these things. Oh yes, and see that man over there in the background of the picture. This grievance probably affects him too. Probably something to do with one fellow trying to get ahead of the other.

B. Interview response:

Most grievances are caused by lower rated men trying to compete with higher rated men like the maintenance. They are always trying to jack up their own jobs—just a lot of petty jealousies. You don't get that sort of thing from maintenance. There is better material there. They know what they're worth but in the other cases the first thing the steward knows, he is put in the middle. The guy puts it to him, "What am I paying dues for?" The steward tries to keep grievances out of the office and tries to talk the man into going back on the job. Then if the fellow seems to be going out too far, the steward usually tells him that he'd better write out a grievance.

Summary. Essentially, then, this was a "constructive" projective method that was designed to permit the subject to reveal his personal frame of reference and way of organizing experience and conceptualizing the world.² The interpretations of the ambiguous stimuli were valuable, not as a means of studying individual personalities, but as a means of ascertaining the "psychological" forces which individuals perceived in the grievance process. The use of conventionalized situations in the pictures permitted the individual evaluations of common experiences to be compared one with another.

The method described above has several advantages when used to supplement more orthodox interviewing methods, or as a direct substitute. In the former case it is an excellent means of validating observed behavior and informant-perceived sentiments. In any case the ease of administration and minimum of rapport required permit the research pro-

² Cf. Lawrence K. Frank, *Projective Methods* (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1948), p. 53.

gram to utilize relatively unskilled interviewers. In fairly short order, excellent leads, that can be followed up by more intensive interviewing by skilled personnel, are obtainable.

Similarly, since one is primarily interested in the interactions and sentiments expressed in the informant's descriptions of what is taking place in the picture, extensive experience and skill with orthodox projective techniques are not required.

It should be recorded that the average depth interview time was two hours, and this did not include the researcher's previous efforts over a six-week period to develop rapport with his informants. On the other hand, the projective photographs were administered in approximately ten minutes to volunteer subjects that the researcher had not met prior to the picture interview. To be successful, the depth interviews had to be undertaken at the informant's home; the picture interviews were done in the plant.

Within the research situation itself, with the use of projective methods rather than directive questions, there is less likelihood that rumors concerning the sensitive areas being probed in the study will "spoil" the sample for further investigation. Obviously, some experience and skill are required in selecting interaction scenes for depiction by photograph and the exclusion of picture leads that might provide an opportunity for pat answers. Assuming there is a willingness to undergo a trial-and-error period, the social science researcher who adapts projective methods to his field program can expect satisfying results.³

³ For other examples of the use of similar pictorial techniques in the study of social attitudes see Marie Jahoda *et al.*, *Research Methods in Social Relations* (New York: Dryden Press, 1951), Vol. I.

TEACHING PROBLEMS OF YOUNG SOCIOLOGISTS

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In a preceding issue of this Journal the writer discussed twenty questions raised by thirty young sociologists concerning "Obtaining Positions by Young Sociologists." In this article twenty additional questions regarding teaching problems that were raised by the same sociologists are treated. The answers given these problems are merely introductory. Other discussants will answer these questions in other ways.

1. What is effective teaching in sociology? No research studies of great importance are as yet available for discussing this important question. Too often such teaching has been considered "good" if it is popular with the students, if the instructor is a good actor, if he emphasizes problems and solutions for them, and if his elective classes are large. Some elements of effective teaching lurk in each of the aforementioned factors, but undoubtedly there are other explanatory factors. For example, (a) effective teaching in sociology, as in other subjects, involves making human relations and social processes meaningful to students. By meaningful is meant any method that connects sociological data with the students' experiences as members of social groups. It refers to ways of helping the student to understand his own roles in group relations and to obtain an enlarged grasp of the nature of societal life. It is far more than giving students data to be put down in notebooks, memorized, and returned untarnished to the instructor on examination papers. It involves the original meaning of education (*educere*), which is that of "drawing out" the student, of helping him to develop his own thought processes, and of becoming a thinker in his own right, perhaps a creator of new ideas. (b) Effective teaching secures active expression in some way of every student in the class with some degree of regularity. It maintains the attention of every student, for when the student is not attending he is mentally not present. It includes regular participation in class discussions, provided the class does not exceed about thirty in number. To the extent that the student takes part, to that extent he is a part of the class. (c) Effective teaching means that the instructor begins in his class work at or near the levels in sociological development where the students are living and thinking, and then proceeds along new paths of thinking about human relations. It means that the instructor has obtained a fairly

correct idea of his students' development in social thinking. It means that he does not talk over their heads or down to them, but acts as a fellow student engaged in guiding them in open-minded thinking about social relations.

2. How can I find out how good or poor I am as a sociology teacher? Your more thoughtful students can tell you if they are frank enough and believe you to be open-minded enough. Inadvertently they tell you by the way that they pay attention or fail to do so, by the percentage of them who participate freely in class, by the nature of their responses to the assignments of work, by the amount of originality in them that is evoked by your teaching, by what your former students tell you when they meet you after they leave college. Students are often relatively free in commenting to the head of your department about your best and your worst characteristics as a teacher. If you are in professional rapport with the head of the department, he can usually give you important reactions of the students.

There is as yet no adequate scale for measuring the efficiency of a sociology teacher or, for that matter, any college teacher. The problem has many variables, and reliable objective methods have not yet been devised. Self-rating and other personality rating scales can give some pointers for making a reliable and valid scale for measuring the efficiency of sociology teachers.

3. I am told that I talk over the heads of my beginning sociology students, but is that a serious offense? Ordinarily the answer is affirmative, for if the instructor talks over the heads of his students, he is not making connections with them on their thinking levels and hence is wasting both his time and theirs. To talk just a little over the heads of the average members of a given class will work out well if they are stimulated to stretch their minds to the instructor's level of teaching. Browning's generalization that a man's reach should exceed his grasp gives support to the idea that the instructor will speak a little in advance of his students.

But talking over the heads of students, as that term is used by students, means that the instructor succeeds only in arousing in students the idea that he wants to impress them with his learning. In so doing he increases the social farness between himself and them and cuts down his teaching efficiency for two reasons: (a) they do not understand what he is talking about, and (b) they do not respect his intellectual pomposity.

The average young sociologist who has completed one or two years of advanced study in association with other students who are daily discussing advanced sociological theories is unintentionally likely to talk over

the heads of beginning students in sociology. The problem is not serious if he recognizes it and corrects it. It is serious if he recognizes it and decides that it is not important, or if he does not recognize it.¹

4. Is there a counseling service for young sociologists regarding teaching methods and techniques? No such service has as yet developed in the formal sense. However, significant informal aspects have come into being. In departments of sociology individual faculty members give a great deal of time to counseling future sociologists; some spare no pains in this connection. Many departments of sociology conduct a monthly meeting of their faculty and graduate students which offers a kind of modified group-counseling service, provided the young sociologists will take advantage of the opportunity.

5. How can I improve my teaching technique? Perhaps by experimentation with different teaching techniques. The tendency is not peculiar to teachers of sociology to use the same teaching methods in most of their undergraduate classes. Many use the same general procedures from year to year. By changing his methods and techniques from time to time, the teacher can discover which give the most satisfactory results. He may arrange for an informal meeting of some of his colleagues both in sociology and in related social sciences for a presentation and discussion of teaching methods that have proved worth while. If the college or university has courses in audio-visual methods, an instructor in this field may be invited to present appropriate materials and to discuss their possible uses in teaching sociology. One university known to the writer has been offering for the last twenty-five years, to graduate students a course entitled "Problems of Teaching Sociology on the College Level."²

The written materials on teaching methods in sociology are limited. A few books and articles deal with teaching social studies, including sociology, on the high school level, but these offer only minor suggestions for the college instructor.

6. What audio-visual aids shall I use? (a) A piece of chalk and the blackboard, whereby a few deft marks or lines will help the students to visualize what the instructor is having difficulty in explaining. (b) Charts and graphs on cardboard for presenting considerable material quickly, on trends in social conditions or human relations. With ingenuity one can develop materials at small expense. (c) Photographs and pictures from periodicals. Some kind of lantern may be used to

¹ E. S. Bogardus, "Behavior Patterns of College Teachers," *Sociology and Social Research*, 30: 484-90.

² The University of Southern California.

throw pictures on a canvas. (d) A few appropriate film strips may be used occasionally. (e) Still pictures, preferably those in color, such as are taken by a 35 mm. still camera. (f) A repertoire of 16 mm. motion pictures is becoming available. (g) Radio presentations of live programs and in the form of transcriptions lend occasional variety. (h) Televised programs, live and transcribed, will be helpful once in a while, provided the college or university has a television receiving set.

It must be added that audio-visual aids are to be treated as aids "and not as substitutes for teaching." They can be of real assistance in teaching if their role is clearly understood. Audio-visual aids do not in themselves develop or change the attitudes of students. It is the meanings that students give or "read into" them that are important.

7. What is the best way to conduct a class in sociology? There may be no "best way," but several effective ones. A conference of a small group of sociologists on this point in terms of personal experiences would yield significant results.³ In the meantime a few proposals may be advanced here. (a) It is important that what the instructor teaches be made meaningful to the student, rather than simply "memorizable." In other words, the teacher connects his line of thinking with the student's level of sociological thinking and the nature of his experiences. (b) If the class is not large (not over thirty), it may be possible to stimulate each student to take part in some way in every class meeting. To the extent that the student becomes a participating and contributing member, he feels that the class is his class; but if he is allowed to take a passive attitude, he feels that the class is the instructor's class. Participation involves asking questions, relating experiences, presenting new social facts. If the instructor can generate at least one or two lively discussions during each class period, he will find student interest mounting. The larger the percentage of the class that participates in the discussions, the better. Moreover, no one or two members are allowed to monopolize a discussion or to sidetrack it. So-called quiet members are encouraged to take a full part. (c) A class appreciates evidence that the instructor prepares anew for each hour by bringing in fresh materials. The sociological aspects of daily happenings of importance in various parts of the world are interesting themes for keeping class discussions up to date.

8. How can I make meaningful what I teach? A part of the answer relates to the way the instructor teaches. If he presents facts to be put down word for word in notebooks, and opinions and conclusions to be

³ Reference in this article is not made to graduate courses because methods vary according to research projects and to ways of having reports made on findings.

accepted without question, then memorizing and cramming for examination will result. On the other hand, if facts are presented with the idea that the students are stimulated to bring out all sides of an issue and express their own opinions freely, the meaningful process has been fostered.

Another aspect of the answer involves discovering what is already meaningful to given students and then of presenting sociological materials that will connect with these meanings. A knowledge by the instructor of his students' noteworthy experiences and interests would seem to be almost indispensable to teaching meaningfully. To a degree such specific knowledge can be obtained by encouraging students to express themselves freely on each sociological topic as it is introduced.

9. Should I hold rigidly to giving students social facts or should I interpret these? Social facts are the relatively stable elements in teaching, whereas the interpretations may vary according to the interpreter's social philosophy. It might be well to get the students to offer their respective interpretations. These may then be compared. They may be regarded with a degree of flexibility, although those that are in line with sociological hypotheses that have stood up under testing will stand out. The instructor withholds his interpretations until everyone else has spoken, and even then he offers his opinion tentatively. He avoids laying himself open to the charge that he is opinionated.

10. Can I continue to be sociologically objective and at the same time emphasize ideals of justice, brotherhood, and democracy in my teaching? The furthering of ideals may be viewed as the obligation of any ethically minded person. As a student of human relations the teacher of sociology is in a strategic position to express what may be regarded as sound ideals. One can be both a social scientist and an ethically minded citizen at the same time, but he would be wise if he did not get his roles mixed. It is important that the students know when their instructor is speaking in one capacity and when he is speaking in the other, and that they keep the distinctions clearly in mind.

11. How far shall I slant my sociology courses toward the needs of my students? The basic need of students in a sociology course is to learn more about the subject under discussion as an aspect of human relations. Such a course will naturally be slanted toward the meanings of the given human relations. Any other slanting will be outside the logical purview of sociology teaching. Of course, if slanting is interpreted to mean that a course should be directed to the student's stage of development in thinking, an affirmative answer will be in order. As far as a student's problems are concerned, some kind of personal counseling is called for rather than the slanting of some aspect of a course.

12. Are any personality traits better than others in teaching sociology? This question is a part of a larger one, namely, What traits are most important in teaching any subject in college? A book might be developed on such a topic. However, a brief summary of such traits (or behavior patterns) may be advanced here as a set of hypotheses for further investigation. (a) Thorough grounding in the fundamentals of the subject taught. (b) An up-to-date acquaintanceship with the important pieces of research that are being reported in the various sociology and related journals. (c) Some kind of reorganization from time to time of the aforementioned materials. (d) A clear-cut way of presenting these materials for class discussion. (e) Efficiency in conducting class discussions. (f) Fairness in treating all, including the students' ideas of what is involved in fairness. (g) The making of assignments for papers and tests in ways that stimulate students to try to do their best. This list is incomplete and may be supplemented and modified.

13. What is the best way to choose sociology textbooks, especially if one lives at a distance from large libraries and book stores? (a) Here is where the meeting of regional sociological societies can serve effectively. These societies enjoy an attendance that is not unduly large and the agenda are not overly crowded; hence a meeting for the discussion of textbooks for different sociology courses can produce many important suggestions. (b) Each of a half-dozen instructors in as many colleges who are teaching a given course may come together for a discussion meeting that would bring out the strong and weak points of the various texts that are being used in teaching a particular sociology course. (c) In lieu of conferences, a half-dozen letters to sociologists teaching a given course in as many institutions may result in valuable estimates. These may be classified and copies made for and distributed to all respondents. (d) Significant reviews of most texts appear in the sociological journals. Comparisons can be made of the reviews of a given text when they appear in two or more journals.⁴

14. What is the way to choose books in sociology for the library of a small college? A questionnaire sent to a dozen instructors in sociology in small colleges, asking for lists of sociology books that they and their students have found most useful in each of certain standard fields of sociology, will give results worth noting. The titles of important books can be gleaned from favorable reviews in the sociological journals. Perhaps a regular perusal of such reviews is as good a basis as any for

⁴ See A. H. Hobbs, *The Claims of Sociology: A Critique of Textbooks* (Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: The Stackpole Company, 1951).

ordering new books in sociology from year to year. If two or more reviewers make a favorable report concerning a particular book, it may be given priority on an order list. If the instructor can find a way for reviewing books for publication in sociological or organizational journals, he will be in a strategic position for making firsthand recommendations to his college librarian. If he has the time he will find a regular perusal of *The Publishers Weekly* a helpful guide.

15. How can I select twenty important books in social fiction and drama for our college library? It is necessary first of all to work out a few major characteristics that constitute an important work of social fiction and of social drama. For example: (a) deals with an outstanding social problem or social relationship of the day; (b) uses indirect suggestion effectively; (c) treats its theme in a vital, serious way; (d) is written in good taste; (e) makes its point without offending a minority group or class; (f) by succinctness conserves the time of the reader; and (g) treats its social theme in line with current sociological thought regarding the given subject matter.

A letter embodying some such statement of characteristics may then be addressed to the librarian of the fiction and drama department or departments of the nearest metropolitan public library or of a large university library. As a rule, the desired response will be obtained. Of course, the English professors in one's own college or university who teach courses in recent and current literature can be of vital help, once the need is explained to them. Book notes such as those found in *The Publishers Weekly* will be of help.

16. How can I choose a well-balanced group of a dozen courses in sociology for our college (we are undergoing a reorganization of our curriculum)? Why not make a survey of twenty-five or more college bulletins and find out what the combined experience of all these institutions has been in terms of the courses most generally offered? The chances are that from eight to ten courses will be found listed in at least half of the bulletins. Additional courses to complete the desired number may be selected from those which received a minority vote or perhaps only one vote. One or two courses may be devised to meet local needs. A second method would be to send a letter to a dozen teachers of sociology asking them which courses they would consider essential in a list of twelve. The replies will bring recommendations that may be compared with the results obtained from the study of the college bulletins. A third method would be that of writing to a dozen carefully selected alumni of one's college who have had several courses in sociology and

who have been out of college a few years, inquiring what courses in sociology were the most important to them and what other courses they now wish they had taken or had been offered.

17. How far shall I use my sociology knowledge in counseling students? This type of activity is very important, although many teachers avoid it. True, it is time consuming and takes time away from research work and other important activities. Yet sociological knowledge implies that its possessor is in a better position, in some ways, to advise students than parents, close friends, or other professional acquaintances. Moreover, the college student is passing through a crucial time of his life, a time when he needs the best counsel that he can possibly obtain.

To the instructor such time as he gives to counseling students who seek his help will yield important results. Some of these are: (a) insight into young human nature, (b) insight into many aspects of social problems that are developing under live conditions, (c) suggestions for class presentation (treating, of course, all counseling activities in strict confidence and making no references that would bring individual students into the picture), (d) suggestions for hypotheses to be tested by empirical research, (e) escape from being bogged down among the dry bones of bookishness. The answer to the question as asked in part depends upon the instructor's ability to render counseling service, upon how much time he is disposed to give such activity, and upon requests for such service.

18. How shall I divide my time between teaching and research? One's relative facility in each of these activities will give a partial answer. One's opportunities, the calls upon one's time, the expectations of the college authorities also will give partial answers. In general, the young sociologist will find his time well occupied in the teaching assignments given him. As he rises in rank, he may claim more time for research if he feels a call in that direction. He may discover, after trying to do research, that he is better fitted for teaching and that he responds to it with far greater efficiency. As a beginner he is usually paid chiefly for teaching, but he is entitled to a fair trial in research work before he decides between the kinds of activity, provided each avenue offers equal occupational opportunities. As a rule, it is unsatisfactory to try to divide one's time more or less equally between the two activities. One or the other will claim one's major attention.

19. What aims should one have in teaching the introductory course in sociology? (a) To give the students who enroll a familiarity with the sociological point of view regarding human relations, namely, an objective approach that seeks to understand all aspects of any social

situation in a nonpartisan way. (b) To emphasize the role of meanings of experiences in a social situation to each of the persons involved. (c) To indicate the nature of the methods of sociological research and to give each student an introductory experience regarding at least one of these methods. (d) To explain and have the students illustrate such major social processes as competition, conflict, accommodation, cooperation, assimilation, socialization. (e) To give some ideas concerning follow-up courses that students may take who wish to major in sociology as well as courses which nonmajors in sociology may elect if they wish. (f) To explain the fields of activity which students who major in sociology may prepare for occupationally.

20. What is the main function of a sociology teacher? No two persons will react to this question in the same way, although out of an inquiry involving a considerable number of sociologists there will be some points at which agreement may be expected. (a) To provide the students with some insight concerning the nature of everyday human relations. (b) To acquaint the student with the sociological point of view⁵ and to give him some experience in applying it to human relations as he experiences them. Time is required for the internalization of the sociological viewpoint, for the average student has habits of thinking and of emotional reactions to be overcome. It is not easy to develop an objective way of looking at life, especially when it is one's own life and when substantial interests may be involved. (c) To indicate to the student where he may look for information concerning any of the aspects of human relations that he may wish to study intensively. This acquaintance includes the use of sociological journals, monographs, books that will likely prove the most fruitful, and indexes. Some help may be given the student in deciding upon the relative importance of articles and books. (d) To introduce the student to elementary methods of making exploratory studies of his own, whether or not he intends to take more courses in sociology. If he obtains an interest in introductory social research, he may wish to continue, or, if not, he will become a more useful member of an industrial committee, a church committee, an educational program committee—in short, of any citizens' committee later in his lifetime.

⁵ A sociological point of view may be defined here as a way of looking at human relations from the standpoint of societal development.

ELON HOWARD MOORE: 1894-1953

Dr. Elon Howard Moore, head of the Department of Sociology at the University of Oregon until his retirement in June 1953, died Monday afternoon, November 16, in Phoenix, Arizona, of a heart condition.

Dr. Moore was born in Moscow, Michigan, on May 18, 1894. He served in the United States Army in World War I. He was married in 1921 to Marjorie Kenney. They had four children—Martha, David, Howard, and Patricia—all of whom, with his wife, survive him.

Dr. Moore received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Albion College in 1919. He attended the Graduate School of the University of Wisconsin and was awarded the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in 1927.

He was instructor in sociology at the University of Illinois from 1926 to 1928 and professor of sociology at Oregon State College from 1928 to 1935. He came to the University of Oregon in 1935 and was made head of the Sociology Department in 1941, the position which he held until his voluntary retirement in June 1953. He was visiting professor at Stanford University in the summer of 1932 and at Wayne University in 1939. During World War II he served as Associate Academic Director of the Army Student Training program at the University of Oregon in charge of Foreign Area and Language studies.

Dr. Moore was a member of a number of professional societies, including the American Sociological Society, the Pacific Sociological Society, and the Gerontological Society. He engaged in many professional activities, being president of the Pacific Sociological Society in 1942 and a member of its advisory council from 1946 to 1950. He was also active in the Social Science Research Council and a member of its Pacific Coast Committee on Old Age Research. He was cooperating editor of the quarterly journal, *Sociology and Social Research*.

Dr. Moore was an active and careful research scholar. His many articles published in professional journals show that his primary interests were population, criminology and penology, and later maturity and problems of the aging. To the last subject he devoted a great deal of time and effort during recent years, completing the manuscript for a book in this field shortly before his death.

Dr. Moore was a very humble man, but one of high standards, of complete honesty, and of great courage. He will be remembered by a host of grateful students whose interests were aroused by his conscientious and stimulating teaching and whose hearts were won by his sincerity, his

humanity, and his never-failing sense of humor. These qualities also won him the highest esteem of his colleagues and the complete loyalty of those who served under his democratic leadership. His memory will be a living inspiration to all who knew him.

J. V. BERREMAN

PACIFIC SOCIOLOGICAL NOTES

Pacific Sociological Meeting. The Annual Meeting will be held at Hotel Benton, Corvallis, Oregon, April 22-23. Drs. Glenn A. Bakum (chairman), Robert Dann, Hans Plambeck, and Frank Parks are serving as the local arrangement committee. President Robert E. L. Faris is calling for any papers that might make a worthy contribution to the program. The final program is to be ready by February 1. In order to meet the new schedule, all finished papers must be in the hands of the editor by March 15.

Brigham Young University. Professor John W. Payne has recently accepted an assignment in Iran, where he is serving as an educational director with headquarters in Tabriz.

Oregon State College. Dr. Hans H. Plambeck, associate professor of sociology, returned in August 1953 after a year's leave of absence, during which he was in New Zealand on a Fulbright research scholarship in rural sociology.

University of Southern California. A graduate seminar for the review of Ph.D. studies in the department was inaugurated this semester. The department anticipates not only the improvement of methodology but the development of more interest in research studies by all graduate students. Vernon Snowbarger passed his preliminary examinations for the Ph.D. degree in November.

University of Washington. Dr. Robert E. L. Faris has been named chairman of the department succeeding Dr. George A. Lundberg. Harper & Brothers have announced the late winter publication of *Sociology* by George A. Lundberg, Clarence O. Schrag, and Otto N. Larsen.

SOCIAL THEORY AND RESEARCH

HEBREW MARRIAGE: A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY. By David R. Mace.
New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1953, pp. xiv+271.

This study grew out of the conviction on the part of the author that the underlying basis of our marriage system in Western civilization stems from the Christian ideal, and that this ideal cannot be understood apart from the Hebrew conception upon which it was based. Therefore, the New Testament concept of marriage is not fully intelligible apart from the Old Testament and Semitic background. After a general description of marriage and kinship patterns, the materials cover the early Hebrew and the Old Testament periods. During the early period Hebrew culture was compounded of diverse elements affecting the structure of society and the patterns of marriage. For a while both monogamy and polygamy prevailed, but the monogamic ideal which had always existed gained almost universal acceptance. The Hebrews established fairly rigid norms and regulations for mate selection, family customs and ceremonials, husband and wife relationships as well as relationships between parents and children, and the control of sex behavior and the conditions of marriage dissolution; all are described in considerable detail and interpreted from a sociological point of view.

M.H.N.

HENRI COMTE DE SAINT-SIMON. *Selected writings.* Edited and translated by F. M. H. Markham. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1952, pp. li+116.

These selected writings include materials on the following subjects: *Essay on the Science of Man*, *The Reorganization of the European Community*, *The Organizer*, *On Social Organization*, and *New Christianity*. The author gives a biographical sketch of St. Simon, an estimate of St. Simon's ideas, a statement of the backgrounds and sources of his ideas, and a word regarding their influence.

St. Simon is credited with discerning "the problems which were to dominate the development of Europe in the next 150 years [after his day at the beginning of the nineteenth century]—problems of international relations, of religion, and of industrialism." He is described as an aristocrat who wished to mold the new age of his day "into a harmonious and constructive form" and as a kind of organic whole. In 1813 he wrote regarding the scientists of his day: "All Europe is in a death-struggle: what are you doing to stop this butchery? Nothing. It is you who perfect

the means of destruction." In his *New Christianity* he seems to feel that "science cannot provide ends, as well as means," and hence he returned to "Christian values" as the main recourse for a troubled world. He did not foresee the possibilities that a later social science might offer as a supplement to Christian values.

E.S.B.

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY. A Study in Child, Youth, School, and Community. By Florence Greenhoe Robbins. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953, pp. xiv+529.

The author considers a textbook "a base from which may spring activity," a source book which will "open up areas of thought and motivate activity." Strong emphasis is placed, therefore, on work skills, group projects, and committee work at the expense of a comprehensive and scholarly presentation of the basic concepts and principles usually included in a course in educational sociology. The book has much to offer in teaching and study aids, resources, bibliography, and programs of action.

The text is organized in three parts. Part I deals with the sociology of the child—the analysis of the structure and process of the social background. Part II is the sociology of school life, in which the basic question is "What makes this social world tick?" Part III attempts the integration of the child, the school as a social institution, and the community from which both are derived.

Miss Robbins makes much use of long quotations and student contributions which are not always relevant, meaningful, or significant. For example, to illustrate students' "amazing preoccupation with religion" she offers this student-remark, "I don't know what churches can do to meet this problem of 'character building and confidence giving,' but I think the suggestions of Landis are good." The chapter on religion consists of long quotations from *Elmtown's Youth, Adolescence and Youth*, and an eight-page personal experience paper written by a student. The subject of Mass Media of Communication is developed entirely through a student-written play in which the usual questions regarding the effect of modern communication on children are asked and answered. The author believes, seemingly, that students will be motivated by this "vitalized subject matter" to seek more fundamental and intensive treatment in other sources.

ESTHER PENCHEF

Los Angeles State College

THE STUDY OF BEHAVIOR, Q-TECHNIQUE AND ITS METHODOLOGY. By William Stephenson. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953, pp. ix+376.

This work in psychological methodology will be helpful to research sociologists who are studying personality in terms of factor and variance analysis. Q-methodology is "a set of statistical, philosophy-of-science, and psychological principles." It is designed to help psychology "to put its house in scientific order." It is applicable to type psychology, self-psychology, clinical psychology, social psychology, and projective tests.

BASIC SOCIOLOGY. By E. J. Ross. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1953, pp. viii+424.

The first part of this book is entitled "The Foundations of Sociology," and deals with forms of social life, community organization, personality, theories of inheritance, the influence of environment, social process, and change. Sociology is defined as "the science which studies the structure and function of social relations, customs, and institutions in different groups, and the changes which they undergo." Two Catholic positions are stated: that of Canon Leclercq of Louvain University to the effect that the religious beliefs of sociologists "have no part to play in their sociological work"; and that of Pope Pius XI, who defined Catholic sociology as "the study of human society by the method of observation and experience in the light of principles accepted from philosophy and theology." It is pointed out by the author that the current tendency is in the direction of Canon Leclercq's position.

The second part of the book bears the label of "Fundamental Institutions," but gives to "institutions" a relatively broad scope. A social institution is defined as "an organization of concepts or rules which has become habitual to a group because it is built around a fundamental human need, or because it satisfies a need of widespread importance." In Part II the "fundamental institutions included are family and marriage, political organization, religion, education, property, the organization of work, and international organizations. In the appendices brief discussions are given of "The Development of Social Thought" and "Christian Social Philosophy," as well as questions for discussion and report topics for each chapter. With clarity of style and splendid organizational ability the author has succinctly stated her interpretation of "basic sociology."

E.S.B.

RESEARCH METHODS IN THE BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES. Edited by Leon Festinger and Daniel Katz. New York: The Dryden Press, 1953, pp. xi+660.

This attractively bound book contains thirteen well-selected and informative articles on research methods in the behavioral sciences, all of which are offered for the first time and are neatly presented by Professor Newcomb's significant introduction entitled "The Interdependence of Social Psychological Theory and Methods: A Brief Overview." Social psychologists and their students, for whom the articles are particularly pointed, will find much that is utilitarian in them, as well as much that will be suggestive for further research and for the refinement of the methods employed. Newcomb states, for instance: "The authors of this volume have been able to draw upon a limited pool of methodological research findings, to which they have themselves contributed. As social psychologists apply these procedures to their own methodological problems, this pool will continue to expand."

The articles have been organized under five major headings, namely, Research Settings, Procedures for Sampling, Methods of Data Collection, The Analysis of Data, and The Application of Research Findings. Nineteen social scientists have been associated with the materials presented. The survey as a technique for social science research has been dealt with by Campbell and Katona, field studies by Daniel Katz, experiments in field settings by John R. P. French, Jr., and laboratory experiments by Festinger. All of the included materials under methods of data collection and the analysis of data are particularly valuable, especially Angell and Freeman's discussion on the use of documents, records, census materials, and indices. Cannell and Kahn do something more than well by their article on the collection of data by interviewing.

Two purposes of the book that have been fairly well attained were to help in the present trend toward codification of research techniques and to give graduate students in the field some understanding of the principles and procedures of modern methodology. The weaknesses and limitations of the methods discussed are not bypassed, and there is always the recognition present that "the setting for any research project is generally guided by the nature of the questions being asked and the degree of control desired." The book will be found stimulating, of course, to the extent to which it encourages the testing, criticism, and improvement of the methods involved in interpersonal relations research.

M.J.V.

NATIONALISM AND SOCIAL COMMUNICATION. *An Inquiry into the Foundations of Nationality.* By Karl W. Deutsch. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., jointly with The Technology Press, 1953, pp. x+292.

This important work, the first draft of which received the Sumner Prize in political science at Harvard, is a pioneering effort which should come to occupy a significant place in the literature of the social sciences.

How can one account for the varieties of response, under differing temporal and cultural circumstances, to nationalistic ideas and policies? Why do a people wish to hold to their nationality, or to change it? What is the developing significance of nationality in an industrialized culture? Under what conditions is ethnic consciousness an asset to a political ruling group? Dr. Deutsch's book is an attempt to use empirical quantitative techniques in the formulation of a sound theory underlying the answers to these and similar questions of great contemporary relevance. It points the way toward methods of measuring human communication as an aid to greater understanding of political dilemmas.

Empirical statistical data are drawn from Asia, Africa, Latin America, Europe, and the United States. Similarly, the author's approach cuts across the traditional boundaries of social science disciplines. As a structural and quantitative analysis of the facets of nationalism, the work should lead to a more valid insight into political relations, through the application of up-to-date methodology.

Dr. Deutsch has set forth an alignment of theory and techniques that renders this volume necessary reading for all social scientists interested in a new frontier of communication research that is very pertinent to problems of twentieth century politics.

JOHN E. OWEN

Florida Southern College

SATISFACTIONS IN THE WHITE-COLLAR JOB. By Nancy Morse. Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1953, pp. viii+235.

Like all the studies made by the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan, this study of satisfactions in the white-collar jobs has been well designed and commendably executed. Its purpose: to study the relationship of variables to employee satisfaction; its population: high, medium, and low productivity clerical work groups consisting of 742 workers and 73 first- and second-line supervisors, 84 per cent of workers being female with predominantly favorable attitudes toward the company studied; the methodology: interviews. Taking into account

the roles played by the workers, namely, the worker doing a particular job, the worker as a member of a work group, the worker as a member of the company organization, and the worker as a member of the community, four areas of satisfactions were subjected to investigation. The areas defined: (1) satisfaction with doing the actual content of the work, (2) satisfaction with being in the work group, (3) satisfaction with working for the company, and (4) satisfaction with pay and status rating.

The findings have all been listed as tentative, since the sample was small and the workers were, in the majority, women, mostly unmarried, with slightly over half under the age of 25. Some of the tentative conclusions: Satisfaction increases directly by the amount the individual's tensions are reduced and decreases directly by the amount of remaining tension; job satisfaction varies directly with variety and the opportunity to use one's skills and abilities; the individual's attitude toward his job may be colored by his attitude toward his pay; employees in the lower-paying jobs are more satisfied with their pay and status than those with higher pay and status; high environmental returns are related directly to satisfaction; the need for pay and job status increases as the employee grows older; those doing highly routine work will tend to be less satisfied than those doing skilled, varied work; there is some doubt that productivity of a worker depends directly upon satisfaction. Several appendices are included, among which are the interview forms, development of the indices, index items in relation to the indices, and the like. More studies of this nature will be essential for the building up of theory in relation to the subject of motivation on the job. Missing seem to be the compulsions within the family group of the worker. M.J.V.

STATISTICAL METHODS IN EXPERIMENTATION: AN INTRODUCTION. By Oliver L. Lacey. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. 249.

This is a short and relatively elementary book about statistical procedures used in experimental designs. Five introductory chapters are devoted to an analysis of the nature of experimentation, of tests of hypotheses, and of probability. In the remaining parts of the book the topics discussed include the properties of the normal curve, tests of statistical significance, simple linear correlation and regression, and fiducial or confidence limits. There are some statistical tables at the end of the book.

It is difficult to understand why the author does not consider the important distinction between Type I and Type II errors in his discussion of tests of hypotheses. The *z* and *t* tests are not extended to the analysis of the significance of a proportion or of the difference between proportions. Finally, there is no reference to the analysis of variance. What commends this book is the simplicity and clearness with which it is written. The numerous exercises and problems at the end of each chapter will be helpful to both students and instructors. G.S.

A FREE SOCIETY: AN EVALUATION OF CONTEMPORARY DEMOCRACY. By Mark M. Heald. New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1935.

This is another attempt to interpret democracy in such a way as to improve its doctrine and practice. Here the orientation is largely historical. Democracy is analyzed in the light of its backgrounds in theory and action, from the world of the ancient Greeks, Hebrews, and Celts, through the medieval period to the "new forces" of the modern era. Nothing startlingly new or creative seems to emerge from this survey, but the author's eagerness to unravel the knotty problems involved in achieving a fully "free society" causes him to draw his conclusions out to what seems a totally unnecessary length. In so lengthening his treatment he demonstrates, indeed, his broad knowledge of European history, especially in its political and economic and some of its juristic aspects.

The author's limited acquaintance with sociological literature, in spite of his frequent references to it, is shown in his almost complete reliance on secondary sources. He hazards such largely erroneous generalities as the very opening sentence of his first chapter: "There is some doubt whether man is by instinct or by nature as gregarious a creature as sociologists have generally contended." It is unfortunate that Mr. Heald has not read more widely in the writings of sociologists, particularly since he purports to refute what they "generally" contend. Attempts to treat the problems of contemporary society in terms of its historic antecedents are surely to be applauded, and cooperative interdisciplinary work of historians, sociologists, and others is essential, but we must get to know each other better than is exemplified in this otherwise enjoyable if unoriginal "evaluation of contemporary democracy."

JOSEPH B. FORD
Los Angeles State College

THE NATURE AND ELEMENTS OF SOCIOLOGY. By McQuilkin De-Grange. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1953, pp. viii+668.

In this voluminous work in social theory the author discusses the rise of the scientific spirit and method, the application of the scientific approach to social phenomena, the societal isolate, societal status, and societal dynamics. The social philosophy of Auguste Comte is a basic theme, and an extensive elaboration (with some criticism) is made of Comte's ideas. A review is given of ten or more sociologists from Le Play and Spencer to Durkheim and Small. On the Comtean hierarchy sociology is placed above biology but below psychology, on the ground that the movement of scientific thought is from the objective to the subjective. In reaching psychology the thinker "passes through and goes beyond the sociological."

The treatise is built around the concept of the "social isolate," which refers to "collective accumulations," the major field of sociology. Emphasis is given to "modifiable necessity." The main part of the book is devoted to analyses of societal status and societal dynamics.

Attention is given to "societal guidance," and a conclusion reached is that "the trend of the universal societal movement is toward universal collaboration, freely accepted on a basis of universal opinion and maintained by a universal sympathy."

A favorable criticism would call for a broad acceptance of Comtean sociology and of theoretical generalizations. Little reference is made in the book to the nature of a sociology based on the criticism and integration of findings of recent piecemeal empirical and experimental studies of human relations.

E.S.B.

THE FOURTH MENTAL MEASUREMENTS YEARBOOK. Edited by Oscar Krisen Buros. Highland Park, New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1953, pp. 1,163.

This important volume reviews and evaluates practically all the commercially available tests in the fields of education, psychology, and vocational aptitude. Under the section "Tests and Reviews" some 793 tests are listed, 596 original tests by 308 reviewers, 53 excerpts from test reviews in some fifteen journals, and 4,417 references on the construction, validity, use, and limitations of specific tests. More than half of the tests have been reviewed by more than two reviewers. In addition, books on mental measurement have been adequately reviewed, especially those of the last several years.

The work under review is a necessity for all persons who need to keep up with more than one phase of mental testing. It will become clear that the reviewers of specific tests have, for the most part, stressed description and analysis rather than destructive criticism. The reader will certainly discover that a careful reading of several reviews of a given test affords an interpretation of the strong and weak points of the testing instrument. The basic question of validity crops up in almost every review of achievement tests. This excellent and comprehensive volume on mental testing deserves a wide circulation, and the editor merits great credit for bringing together test and reviewer, a task done with marked success.

E.C.M.

WHO SHALL SURVIVE? By J. L. Moreno. New York: Beacon House, 1953, pp. xi+763.

In this tome the author presents his latest views on the subjects of sociometry, group psychotherapy, and sociodrama. In fact, this extended revision of the earlier work (1934) by the same title might be considered as three books in one. On the bases of the large amount of materials of different kinds in this work, the author might be encouraged to write three well-organized but separate books on sociometry, group psychotherapy, and sociodrama.

It is natural that sociometry should receive the largest amount of space, for extensive experimentation has been conducted in this field by the author and by others. The sociometric developments reach elaborate expressions in sociograms that by their very nature tend to become overly complicated. Sociometry is contributing to our understanding of interpersonal relations in small groups, and its title, suggesting social measurement, has distinct merit. While large groups are composed of small groups, yet they are more than so many small groups, and a methodology for studying large groups remains to be perfected.

The discussion of group psychotherapy in this work is much more limited than the treatment of sociometry. The presentation of sociodrama is still more limited, but these methods are in their beginning stages. With the author's great enthusiasm for these methods, further developments may be expected.

Perhaps the best part of the book is found in the twenty pages of "hypotheses," for they contain in a way a summary of the many pages of discussion which at times is somewhat repetitious and they indicate the author's interest in and emphasis on the need for experimentation. The Glossary helps to make succinct the many new terms which the author

has coined and the new meanings assigned to old terms. One term, for example, that is developed at length is *spontaneity* or, perhaps better, *spontaneity-creativity*. At present "the spontaneity quotient of the total of mankind is practically inert," as illustrated by the United Nations, because individuals are "unfree" and small groups are "unfree" and nations are "unfree." If the latent spontaneity of mankind can be developed, "the power of man, the exercise of his collective energy will surpass everything we have ever dreamed," and if "a fraction of one-thousandth of the energy" spent by man in developing mechanical devices were spent on "the improvement of our cultural capacity," a new age of mankind would arrive. The author's willingness to experiment is one of the chief assets of a somewhat unwieldy collection of new ideas and sweeping generalizations.

E.S.B.

ANALYZING AND PREDICTING JUVENILE DELINQUENCY WITH THE MMPI. By Starke R. Hathaway and Elio D. Monachesi. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1953, pp. vii+153.

Professional workers and research specialists, in attempting to study the conditions that are likely or unlikely to lead to juvenile delinquency, have felt the need for an objective instrument to help identify pertinent data. The authors feel that the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory is such an instrument. In this report they summarize five studies which preceded the concluding investigation by the authors, a longitudinal study of 4,048 ninth-graders. "The outstanding finding in positive relationship between recognized scale meanings and delinquency is that the MMPI scales 4 and 9 have an excitatory role in the actuarial numbers predicting the development of a social behavior. The results on these scales lead one toward the conclusion that the asocial, amoral psychopath and the hypomanic among the patterns of adult maladjustment are those chiefly represented among the adolescents" (p. 137). Those adolescents whose MMPI profiles do not show high deviation are unlikely to be found delinquent. Recognizing certain limitations of the use of this instrument in predicting behavior, they feel that it is superior to the present practices in evaluating the effectiveness of treatment and preventive programs.

Personality inventories are important instruments of research and have been used to good advantage in analyzing and predicting behavior, whether delinquent or other forms of conduct, and the MMPI is one of the most comprehensive among them, but they leave out other conditioning factors which are of considerable significance. The impact of the

social environment is not accurately measured; this may not only be a direct source conditioning behavior but has an important bearing on personality itself. When personality tests are accompanied by the analysis of the family, the gang, community, and other social factors, a more accurate appraisal can be made of the effectiveness of any program of treatment and prevention.

M.H.N.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND WELFARE

A COURT FOR CHILDREN: A STUDY OF THE NEW YORK CITY CHILDREN'S COURT. By Alfred J. Kahn. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953, pp. xxii+359.

This book is the report of a study carried out under the auspices of the Citizens' Committee on Children of New York City. Kahn begins with an account of the current philosophies of child welfare underlying the child court movement in the United States. He then turns to the New York City Children's Court and systematically documents current conditions in each department. He evaluates the efficiency of these departments in achieving the broad objectives of community welfare and makes recommendations as to how each can contribute more effectively to the attainment of the over-all goals.

Much attention is given to the method of study. The devices for assuring objective observation and the criteria by means of which efficiency was judged are fully described. The recommendations contain specific details and indicate plans suitable for immediate implementation as well as guides for a long-range program. Qualifications and performance of personnel, ranging from judges and probation officers to attendants, clerks, and stenographers, are considered from a variety of perspectives, including general orientation to the program as well as technical skills. The report emphasizes those values and goals that are sought for the general welfare of society and is grounded upon the present legal code and philosophy.

The volume is a model, and should be an inspiration, for the self-study of juvenile courts elsewhere or for their establishment where they do not exist. It is a valuable reference book for the academic study of children's courts. It is a guide for the appraisal of community agencies in general.

THOMAS E. LASSWELL

George Pepperdine College

SELECTED STUDIES IN MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY. Edited by Robert F. Winch and Robert McGinnis. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953, pp. xiii+578.

This book of readings is a rich compendium of many of the most critical research studies available in reference to American family life. In dealing with such subjects as the family in a changing society, parent-child relationships and the development of personality, the adolescent, the adult, the aged, familial roles, romantic love, dating and courtship, mate selection, marital adjustment and divorce, the authors have furnished significant studies not reported in previous books of readings on the family.

The whole book is marked by the scientific approach defined in the first chapter, although a few articles are speculative. The book of readings follows generally Winch's 1952 text, *The Modern Family*, and is about as fragmentary as that book is. The material is excellent in content but limited in scope. This book belongs on the reference shelf of the libraries of both colleges and sociologists.

J.A.P.

SOCIETY—DEMOCRACY—AND THE GROUP. By Alan F. Klein. New York: Woman's Press and William Morrow and Company, 1953, pp. xvi+343.

This is a book on social group work with a fresh approach. As Dean Harleigh B. Trecker states in his Foreword, "this book, more than any other, puts the 'social' in social group work." The book is noteworthy for the large amount of group-work theory which is introduced into the discussion of the practice and administration of social group work.

The main trend of the whole book is revealed in a summary of five goals of group-work practice, namely, (1) "to help the individual to develop his personality" in the directions of maturity, adjustment, leadership, and social responsibility; (2) to develop "mature groups"; (3) "to inculcate social values"; (4) "to educate for democratic living"; and (5) "to transmit culture." The author then proceeds to make many suggestions to group workers for achieving these ends. His description of a mature person (pp. 91-93) is worth considering carefully. His list of "barriers to committee productivity" (p. 211) is important. The values of programs for large groups or assemblies are put succinctly (p. 264). The role of the group worker in groups of "senior citizens" is significant but brief. Every group worker will find in this work various suggestions to try out and probably to adopt.

E.S.B.

HELPING OLDER PEOPLE ENJOY LIFE. By James H. Woods. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953, pp. 177.

The author, director of the Recreation Project for Older People in Cleveland, Ohio, speaks both to the "older people" and to others who are en route and being taxed to provide the pensions. The aged, one learns from the book, are not necessarily "different" from their juniors; they do not want to be pampered, although they do not mind being helped by the community with worth-while projects, which in turn will benefit the community. The merits of the book are such as one would expect from the author, a well-known expert who has had many years of experience in gerontology.

HANS A. ILLING

MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY IN AMERICAN CULTURE. By Andrew G. Truxel and Francis E. Merrill. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953, pp. x+587.

This is a revision of the text which first appeared in 1947, but it is almost a new book. The new material dealing with preparation for marriage in sections discussing courtship, romantic love, wise marriage choice, dating, achieving marital solidarity and success makes this book important to teachers of both institutional and functional courses in marriage and the family.

The change in emphasis is symbolic of new emphases in college courses on the family. The problem presented by this kind of book is that the attempt to meet this new need with new sections and material on the functional level involves the omission of relevant institutional material, so that the book suffers as an institutional family course text. Yet its general orientation is toward the analysis of the family in our culture, and, consequently, as a text it is hardly satisfactory as the basic material in a functional course. The question then arises whether such a book serves either field adequately. The more significant question is whether the same course can ever make at the same time an academic and a clinical contribution.

This seeming dichotomy of approach is reflected in the rather loose organization of the book. The first part relates the family to American cultural trends, to religion, to individualism, and to democracy. The next two sections seem to be an almost disparate book in approach, stressing courtship, wise marriage choice, and marriage adjustment. Part four analyzes the family as an institution. Part five discusses the family and personality formation. Part six deals with the dynamics of the family.

Actually, in emphasis and in approach part four seems to be a logical part of the first section, while much of parts five and six belongs in the third section. These difficulties in organization seem to the reviewer to stem from a confusion in terms of objectives in the writing of this and other family texts which recently have seemed to endeavor to be all things to all students.

Despite these comments this is a splendid book. Its style is interesting, it is well documented and comprehensive in its material, and it will provide students with a valuable secondary source for reference material.

J.A.P.

PREVIEW FOR TOMORROW, THE UNFINISHED BUSINESS OF SCIENCE. By Bruce Bliven. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1953, pp. xiii+346.

In nontechnical language the author presents scientific data regarding a number of phases of life, such as overpopulation, increasing the food supply, saving the natural resources, longer and healthier lives, better communication, getting along together, and conserving intelligence. On the basis of the facts as presented, the author makes a large number of incisive observations and suggestions in a forthright manner for putting the findings of science into widespread operation and into the conservation and development of the precious human resources.

SOCIOLOGY. An Introduction. By Edward C. McDonagh and Thomas E. Lasswell. Columbia, Missouri: Lucas Brothers, 1953, pp. 85.

The sequence of the major topics run as follows: culture, personality, social processes, population, family, religion, education, stratification, social control, ethnic relations, delinquency, crime, war, research. Two pages of "selected ideas of prominent sociologists" and five pages of "review questions" are given. Seventeen tables and four figures are included, and a correlation of the outline with the following introductory sociology texts is provided: Bogardus, Cuber, Dawson and Gettys, Green, Jones, Landis, MacIver and Page, Martindale and Monachesi, Merrill and Eldredge, Ogburn and Nimkoff, Sutherland, Woodward and Maxwell, and K. Young. The book is more than a mere outline, for it contains a surprising number of carefully phrased sociological generalizations.

D.L.

RECREATION FOR THE AGING. By Arthur Williams. New York: Association Press, 1953, pp. 212.

A leader of the National Recreation Association, Mr. Williams is thoroughly familiar with the total present-day picture of gerontology throughout the country. This fact appears in useful statistics and in reports of which community is doing what. As Mr. Williams rightly states, "it is hoped that these few examples will convey some small idea of what can be done—what is being done. The leisure-time needs of our older citizens can be met if there is the will to serve and to work with others, the acceptance of them as interesting, capable human beings in their own right, and a sincere respect for them as individuals."

HANS A. ILLING

THE INTERNATIONAL LABOR MOVEMENT. HISTORY, POLICIES, OUTLOOK. By Lewis L. Lorwin. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953, pp. xviii+366.

This is a well-tailored historical account of the International Labor Movement from the first suggestion made by William Lovett, secretary of the London Working Men's Association, in 1838, down to the present year, when the AFL, CIO, and the United Mine Workers issued a joint statement endorsing the work of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions, the most important labor international now in existence. Two other general organizations are in the field, namely, the World Federation of Trade Unions and the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions, the former being Communist dominated, the latter being guided by Catholic ideas of social justice and labor welfare. Author Lorwin, a distinguished authority and student of international labor affairs, has organized his materials so as to give a comprehensive report upon the numerous attempts made by workers in all parts of the world to secure mutual aid and cooperation. Toward the end of the nineteenth century, international labor organizations "began to have some influence on the policies of governments, and later they played a role in developing and making possible the realization of the idea of a League of Nations." At present, the International Labor Movement, having been split into opposing camps, finds the West European and American movements working more or less together in furthering the growth of a pragmatic-reformist movement attempting to influence the structure and policies of the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations.

M.J.V.

MAN AND MODERN SOCIETY. CONFLICT AND CHOICE IN THE INDUSTRIAL ERA. By Karl de Schweinitz, Jr., and Kenneth W. Thompson. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953, pp. xii+849.

This book is another to provide an integrated social science course, based on experience with freshmen and sophomores at Northwestern University. The bulk of the contents is comprised of carefully selected readings, grouped in several chapters within the three-part organization. Part I explores the foundations of modern society, Part II deals with various aspects of industrial society and the problem of choice, and Part III discusses tensions in modern society. Some of the readings are very short excerpts; others are so long as to be of chapter length. The authors, or editors, have written excellent introductions to each part and each chapter to prepare the student for the readings which follow. A course based on a text of this kind should provide good orientation for several disciplines in the social sciences, with special mention of sociology, economics, and political science. In the two-column format throughout, the book is well organized, and the publishers should be complimented for a fine job of printing.

J.E.N.

WOMEN IN THE MODERN WORLD: THEIR EDUCATION AND THEIR DILEMMAS. By Mirra Komarovsky. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1953, pp. 319.

This is an attempt to discover the social and cultural roots of the personal problems of middle-class women, especially the college trained. Problems to which particular attention is given include those of the homemaker, the career woman, and the employed homemaker. These and other problems are traced primarily to conflicting values and conflicting roles to which the modern American woman is exposed.

More specifically, the book deals with seven general topics: criticisms of women's education, psychological and other differences between men and women, conflicting roles given young women, especially those under twenty-one, problems of the homemaker, problems of the employed homemaker, education for marriage and parenthood, and suggestions for modifying women's education in American colleges.

Generalizations for the most part are supported by excerpts from case histories. Data from systematic research studies are found throughout the book. The author's own research and her many years of teaching in a woman's college give added weight to the conclusions of the study.

H.J.L.

THE COMMUNIST PROBLEM IN AMERICA. A Book of Readings.

Edited by Edward E. Palmer. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1951.

The readings are concerned with the strategy and tactics of world communism, the Communist party in America, and propositions for informal solution of the problem. In the latter connection, topics included are: the Communist in American education, the Communist and freedom of assembly, the Communist in American politics and in American labor unions, the Federal loyalty program. Finally, another group of readings deals with aspects of a "formal" solution of the Communist problem in America. Owing to the continued interest in investigations concerning Communist organizations and membership in the United States, this source book contains a wealth of useful information not only for college students but for laymen.

J.E.N.

THE FORCE OF WOMEN IN JAPANESE HISTORY. By Mary R. Beard.

Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1953, pp. viii+196.

This book treats the role of women in Japanese history and presents a medley of facts and observations intended to emphasize the significance of this role. Each chapter is devoted to a particular period of history and to an examination of the contributions of selected women to their age. The span of history covered by Mrs. Beard ranges from the time of the Sun Goddess, some two thousand years ago, to present-day Japan.

The mass of material, not always entirely lucid, is at times almost overwhelming. However, the importance of the role of women in Japanese history is the consistent theme, and the fact that this role is being used to build for the future is of definite sociological import.

The last chapter, "Laboratory of Social Experiments," poses many problems peculiar to the Japanese in the aftermath of an aggressive war—"pauperism, starvation, frenzied agony, and death." The prime issue, overpopulation, is discussed, and the author relates the part that women are playing in Japanese politics today toward the solution of this and accompanying problems.

The book presents an interesting and thorough collection of data but in a more difficult style than that employed in Mrs. Beard's previous books. It merits attention because it begins with the early years of an important civilization and emphasizes the dynamic steps that women have taken toward securing a higher status and a better way of life.

MARCIA ECH LASSWELL

George Pepperdine College

HEALTH IN THE LATER YEARS. A Report on the Third Annual Southern Conference on Gerontology, held at the University of Florida, January 1953, pp. x+123.

Of the thirteen papers, by as many different authorities, published in this report, those on the role of sociology, psychology in a gerontological program, dynamic aspects of aging, meeting the gerontological challenge are of most interest to sociologists. In the first, contributed by Dr. Ernest W. Burgess, president of the Gerontological Society, the author states that sociology in a medical school can make "its contributions to gerontology along three lines: (1) research, (2) prevention, and (3) therapy."

Suggested fields of research include family and living arrangements of older people, changes with aging in interpersonal relations, self-conceptions of older people, public conceptions of older persons' roles in society. Prevention of aging may be fostered by education for exercise of artistic and other talents. Since participation in social life is essential to health, "the sociologist has a role to play in therapy," that is, in finding out what activities contribute most to social therapy for the aging.

E.S.B.

PEOPLES AND CULTURE

POPULATION PROBLEMS. By Warren S. Thompson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. Fourth edition, 1953, pp. xiv+488.

This new edition will be welcomed by students and teachers of population problems. The plan of organization is quite similar to that used in the previous edition, though some chapters have been expanded and others shortened to suit the changing purposes or views of the author. Statistical data have been brought up to date in so far as available in the current census of the United States or of other countries. Such revisions are more significant in the tabulations and discussions concerning the United States. Many of the former population studies that have special, virtually classic significance appear also in this edition.

For those who may not be familiar with the range of material in this widely used text, mention should be made of the brief survey of typical theories of population, of factors in the growth of population, the composition of population, racial aspects with special attention to the Negro population in the United States, the significance of birth rates and death

rates in various countries, migration, urban trends, and population policies. As revised and reset, this text will doubtless maintain its leadership in the field.

J.E.N.

AMAZON TOWN. A Study of Man in the Tropics. By Charles Wagley.
New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. xi+305.

The town under review is "Ita," located on the lower Amazon. Its five hundred people and environs were carefully studied over a period of several months. It is a very poor and backward community whose chief centers of activity are the church, the town hall, and the Health Post. The family life, the economic life, and the social and play activities of the town are reviewed in a detailed way.

Wissler's universal culture pattern is well illustrated in Ita. The Catholic religion is noted for its flexibility and adaptation to the local social situation. Its way of life seems to "provide as much satisfaction for its people" as does the way of Plainville in the United States. However, there is danger that it "will lose its rich cultural traditions in exchange for second-rate participation in modern and commercial society." Persons who wish to introduce current technical and commercial patterns of life need to have a knowledge of the native cultural system and to proceed carefully, or the natives will become disorganized. The author throws considerable light not only on the culture system of Ita but on life in the entire lower Amazon Valley.

E.S.B.

HOW NATIONS SEE EACH OTHER. By William Buchanan and Hadley Cantril. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1953, pp. 220.

In this important book a comprehensive survey is presented of the international aspects of stereotypes. In nine major countries (Australia, Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, and the United States) a cross-sectional sample of the adult population were asked pertinent questions about human nature, possibilities of war, world government, class identification, and what nationals seemed to be friendly. Perhaps the most interesting phase of this study examines the tendency to assign particular adjectives as descriptive of specific people. Hence, there appears a very definite relationship between particular countries and the following twelve adjectives or stereotypes: hardworking, intelligent, practical, conceited, generous, cruel, backward, brave, self-controlled, domineering, progressive, and peace-loving.

If this type of testing can be done every two years, it will be possible to measure the direction of changing attitudes and the growth of international hostility. It is an unexpected finding that respondents of higher education tend to be more optimistic about the chances for world peace than those persons with limited formal education. Perhaps the respondents of higher social class and education feel that they can manipulate the social environment by their superior skills of communication. Of all the nations tested the United States reveals the highest degree of national satisfaction, 98 per cent of the American people believe the United States offers them the kind of life they would like to lead. Certainly, this finding ought to go a long way to indicate extraordinary loyalty and confidence of our people in the United States. This book deserves a wide readership among social scientists and the interested public.

E.C.M.

THE IMPACT OF RUSSIAN CULTURE ON SOVIET COMMUNISM. By
Dinko Tomasic. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1953, pp. 287.

Russian culture, for the purposes of this study, has been broadly based in the structure of the Czardom as traced through life in the steppes, the rural areas, the Turco-Mongol influences in the formation of Russian society, the Byzantine Church and the Muscovite military theocracy, the influence of Western technology, and the development of Russia's bureaucratic autocracy.

The Russian personality is represented as founded in autocratic patriarchal family organization in which violence and fear, dependency, power-seeking, mistrust, and destructive aggressiveness are blended, all tending toward emotional instability. Such qualities may be counterbalanced by revolt, nihilism, and anarchy, out of which could ascend Bolshevism.

The thesis is that ideologies and social reform movements in Russia have had roots in the old Russian culture patterns and conflicts incident to patriarchal home life. The regimentation and abuse of power in the Soviet structure would not be foreign to long-established conditions of life in Russia. The destructive aggression and other qualities of the Soviet order represent, on a much larger scale, the complex of traits associated traditionally with the old Russian patriarchal system. Just as individuals revolted at times against the patriarchal absolutism with its abuse of power, the Russian people have the capacity to revolt against the Soviet government when circumstances are right for it. Since the Soviet system

is a logical culmination of old Russian culture, the people may be long-suffering under totalitarian regimentation. Nevertheless, the Soviet regime lacks security because it is founded on terrorism, fear, regimentation, mistrust, and other traits which cause emotional instability.

J.E.N.

WHO KILLED KENYA? By Colin Wills. New York: Roy Publishers, 1953, pp. 111.

Until recently, the author asserts, race relations in Kenya, though imperfect, existed "on a genuine human basis." Today, there is no peace in Kikuyuland. The white settler who "in his way had a good deal of understanding of his Kikuyu neighbor," has now been "poisoned against him" and has lost faith in the government; and the natives are arrayed against both the white settlers and the government, with the most radical members committing gross violence and terrorism.

Today, the author sees the prospect before Kenya as "one of increasing ambition and provocation on the part of selfish groups, European, Asian, and African." In other words, the problem in Kenya is much greater than Mau Mau violence. The move for nationalism in Kenya arose from a natural desire "to achieve the best possible future" for the people, but the extremists resorted to terrorism and to the demand that all the Kikuyu, a million and more of them, swear to a loyalty oath supporting the purposes of the Mau Mau. Some are refusing and some are renouncing the loyalty oath, but in all cases at the peril of their lives. Here is a case of a "national" loyalty oath fraught with great social destruction. The oath requires that the people swear "to kill or drive out the Europeans, to stamp out Christianity in Kenya, and to overthrow the government," and gives the Mau Mau great power. Who is responsible for the death of Kenya? The author distributes the responsibility in varying degrees among all participants.

E.S.B.

RACE AND RELIGION. By C. G. Campbell. New York: British Book Centre; and London: Peter Nevill, 1953, pp. viii+238.

On the basis of documentary studies, the author contends that the founder of Christianity was of Proto-Nordic racial extraction and that his teachings conflicted with the ancient Hebrew teachings instead of being a natural development of them.

AMERICANS AND CHINESE: TWO WAYS OF LIFE. By Francis L. K. Hsu. New York: Henry Schuman, 1953, pp. xx+457.

While explaining and contrasting the Chinese and American ways of life, the author says the basic characteristic of the Chinese may be expressed by the term "situation-centered," the American way of life being "individual-centered." Another fundamental element in the contrasts drawn is indicated for each of the cultures considered: The Chinese underplay all matters of the heart, whereas the emotions are given prominence in the American way of life.

Cultural differences are shown in literature, art, home life, in economic, political, and religious behavior patterns, and in other aspects having more incidental interest. Apparently, both societies have very serious problems. In America the problems cited occur in the domain of human relationships involving atomization and explosiveness. In China, however, the most tenacious problems tend to center upon the natural environment, the lack of incentive to control it, and the absence of internal impetus to alter established conditions. American problems referred to are old age, juvenile delinquency, racial tension, sex crimes, the cost of insecurity, in which respects Chinese life offers contrasts. Chinese weaknesses are bondage to the past, revolt without revolution, lack of science and music, and the price of contentment with personal security, in all of which the American culture pattern is different.

Both ways of life become clearer through the comparative method of analysis used. Sociologists and ethnologists should find this study of value, and it is written in an engaging style that should appeal to the general reader.

J.E.N.

THE WORLD IS MINE. By Burton Holmes. Culver City, California: Murray & Gee, Inc., 1953, pp. xii+267.

"To travel is to possess the world" is Burton Holmes' slogan, based on what now adds up to more than sixty years of travel. In this incomplete autobiography, the author relates many interesting experiences and makes a number of significant personal confessions. He tells of important personages whom he has met in their homes and includes several photographs of people and of objects of art. He tells how he combined the lecture platform with motion pictures, making this combination in his day a new art.

THEORETICAL ANTHROPOLOGY. By David Bidney. New York: Columbia University Press, 1953, pp. ix+506.

This scholarly work will be welcomed by teachers of anthropology and sociology as well as philosophy, and it will appeal to graduate students in any one of these fields. The book aims to appraise modern and contemporary philosophical thought with special reference to British and American anthropology. Dr. Bidney deals with a wide range of social problems and points out their significance in the philosophy of culture. Philosophers will find their chief interest in the field of philosophical anthropology, while social scientists generally will appreciate the synthesis of the basic concepts of their several disciplines.

Some of the outstanding chapter headings are: The Concept of Culture and Some Cultural Fallacies, Society and Culture, Cultural Dynamics and the Quest for Origins, The Concept of Myth, The Concept of Cultural Crisis, the Concept of Personality in Modern Ethnology, Ideology and Power in the Strategy of World Peace, The Problem of Freedom and Authority in Cultural Perspective.

The author makes frequent use of the thinking of other sociologists and philosophers as well as anthropologists. For example we read: Sorokin believes in the unity of human culture and adduces historical, statistical evidence to support his optimistic faith in the cyclical recurrence of the basic types of culture. Spengler, on the other hand, with his monadic, organic theory of undiffusible culture types, logically maintains that each culture type is destined to extinction without hope of resurrection in some new form, and he finds it impossible to say "whether and when a new culture shall be."

This study will not attract the casual reader, but will prove a rewarding experience for the serious student.

WILLIAM KIRK

Pomona College

THE RACIAL INTEGRITY OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO. By A. H. Shannon. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1953, pp. 262.

Emphases are placed on such themes as the mulatto, the near-white, the poor white, politics and the race problem, race and religion, colonization as a solution of the American race problem. The race problem in the United States involves "three distinct groups"—the whites, the mixed bloods, and the Negro—and as the mixed bloods advance in culture and status the full-blood Negro loses out and becomes "the chief sufferer." The author argues in behalf of "racial self-respect and racial

self-sufficiency." In terms of a goal, he urges the Negro not to forget "that Africa, the homeland of his race, holds for him an independence, a freedom, a chance, a racial status not possible elsewhere."

THE MEANING OF LIFE IN HINDUISM AND BUDDHISM. By Floyd H. Ross. Boston: The Beacon Press, 1952, pp. xii+167.

Professor Ross urges Christians to recognize the tremendous surge of the life of the spirit in the Orient, even when that surge is careless of traditional Western forms or phrases. In this essay significant examples of Hindu and Buddhist insight into life problems have been presented in such manner that Western readers may glimpse, and possibly understand, their deeper implications.

The qualities of life during Vedic times, including the characteristic probing for realities in social and spiritual values, are reflected in Vedic literature. One of the underlying questions is the nature of the self, which is examined in terms of the Upanishads and the Bhagavad-Gita. Continuing the development, the author gives an explanation of the art of the Yoga—the reintegration of the self—and a brief exploration of the meanings of Karma, of Brahma and Atman, and of other essential Hindu concepts; so also for the teachings of Buddhism, its literature, and the way of life stressed.

The reader will find much to admire and ponder over as the author's analysis and interpretation unfold. The contents of the book are not haphazard, but carefully selected and organized to construct a logical and integrated exposition of the meaning of life and the significance of the self.

J.E.N.

FACING MOUNT KENYA. By Jomo Kenyatta. New York: British Book Centre, 1953, pp. xxv+339.

In the Introduction, B. Malinowski speaks of this book as being "a pioneering achievement of outstanding merit." First published in 1938, it is reprinted because of the light that it throws on the recent Mau Mau riots. The author is a native Gikuyu, or Kikuyu, and writes in part from firsthand experiences about his people, of their land tenure system, their economic life, their sex life and marriage system, their religion and magical practices. In his conclusion the author states that Gikuyu culture is an integrated whole and that "no single part is detachable."

E.S.B.

AN APPRAISAL OF ANTHROPOLOGY TODAY. Edited by Sol Tax, Loren C. Eiseley, Irving Rouse, and Carl F. Voegelin. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1953, pp. xiv+395.

This appraisal represents the findings of an International Symposium on Anthropology, with eighty-two members assembled for discussion of papers on a wide range of subjects. The problems of the historical approach are appraised in terms of methods, results, and theory. The problems of process are examined according to a similar plan. Some attention is also given to problems of application. Several chapters deal with the definition and scope of anthropology and more specialized areas within it, including the following: technological aids in anthropology; cultural-social anthropology; archaeology; physical anthropology and the biological basis of human behavior; linguistics; pattern in biology, linguistics, and culture; values; anthropology as a field of study. The final chapter is a review by A. L. Kroeber, president of the symposium. The papers and discussion range widely, and consequently the students of anthropology and other social sciences should find material touching on many contemporary questions. To facilitate the use of this appraisal, there is not only a topical index but also a list of the principal papers considered and an index of the remarks of each speaker. J.E.N.

SOCIAL FICTION

TOO LATE THE PHALAROPE. By Alan Paton. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1953, pp. 276.

The stern inequality that lies between the white and black peoples of South Africa is imprinted deeply in this story by the author of *Cry, the Beloved Country*. The dark tale of illicit love is told by Pieter's spinster aunt Sophie and supplemented by notes from Pieter's own diary of the affair. Conflict rages between old Boer pioneer Jakob van Vlandeeren and his young police lieutenant son, Pieter, for Pieter has a compassionate nature and is not inclined to be as fanatical in his views toward either religion or politics. According to old Jakob, "the point of living is to serve the Lord your God, and to uphold the honour of your church and language and people."

As police lieutenant, Pieter becomes involved with a dark young seductress, Stephanie. She has had a child born to her, fathered by a white man, and the Afrikaners decide that the child must be taken from her, since she has no visible means of support. Stephanie casts her

spell of charm over Pieter and he commits the unpardonable offense, for the law states that "no white man might touch a black woman nor might any white woman be touched by a black man." Pieter's wife Nella has never been able to show him the warmth of physical love that he craved. The affair with Stephanie brings down the whole Van Vlandeeren circle and the death of Jakob. Through the device of the diary, Paton shows the fierce intraconfigurational struggle which finally consumes Pieter and makes his relatives seek the solace of complete isolation. Three things make this piece of fiction noteworthy: vivid etchings of its characters, excellent sketchings of the social life of the Boers, the dramatic forcefulness of its big scenes.

M.J.V.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED

PURITAN SAGE. Collected Writings of Jonathan Edwards. Edited by Vergilius Ferm. New York: Library Publishers, 1953, pp. 640.

THE TROUBLED MIND. By Beulah C. Bosselman. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1953, pp. 206. A psychiatric and psychoanalytic treatment of personality disorders.

DEMOCRACY IN AN ERA OF BIGNESS, THE AMERICAN ANARCHY. By Lionel Gelber. New York: Henry Schuman, 1953, pp. 212. The author, a Canadian, scans "afresh those elements in a mass society which make the fulfillment of democracy fall short of its promise."

MEMBERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS OF SPECIAL-INTEREST ORGANIZATIONS. By James N. Young and Ward W. Bander. Lexington: University of Kentucky, 1953, pp. 36.

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF ORGANIC EVOLUTION. By Philip G. Fothergill. New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1953, pp. 427.

LOBBYIST FOR THE PEOPLE. By Benjamin C. Marsh. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1953, pp. 224.

THE MAKING OF A MORON. By Niall Brennan. New York: Sheed & Ward, 1953, pp. 189.

THE SOVIET IMPACT ON SOCIETY. By Dagobert D. Runes. New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1953, pp. 202.

INFORMATION FOR PAKISTAN. Report of Research on Intercultural Communication through Films. By J. J. Honigmann. Chapel Hill: Institute for Research for Social Science, University of North Carolina, 1953, pp. 276.

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